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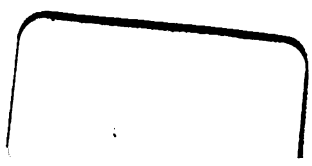

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CONTAINING A FULL AND COMPLETE RECORD OF THE

HUMAN RACE

FROM THE

EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT TIME,

EMBRACING A

GENERAL SURVEY OF THE PROGRESS OF MANKIND IN NATIONAL AND SOCIAL LIFE, CIVIL GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART.

COMPLETE IN FIVE VOLUMES.

—BY—

ISRAEL SMITH CLARE,

AUTHOR OF "ILLUSTRATED UNIVERSAL HISTORY," AND "COMPLETE HISTORICAL COMPENDIUM."

"Not to know what happened before we were born is to remain always a child; for what were the life of man did we not combine present events with the recollections of past ages?"—CICERO.

VOLUME IV.

SIXTEENTH, SEVENTEENTH AND EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES.

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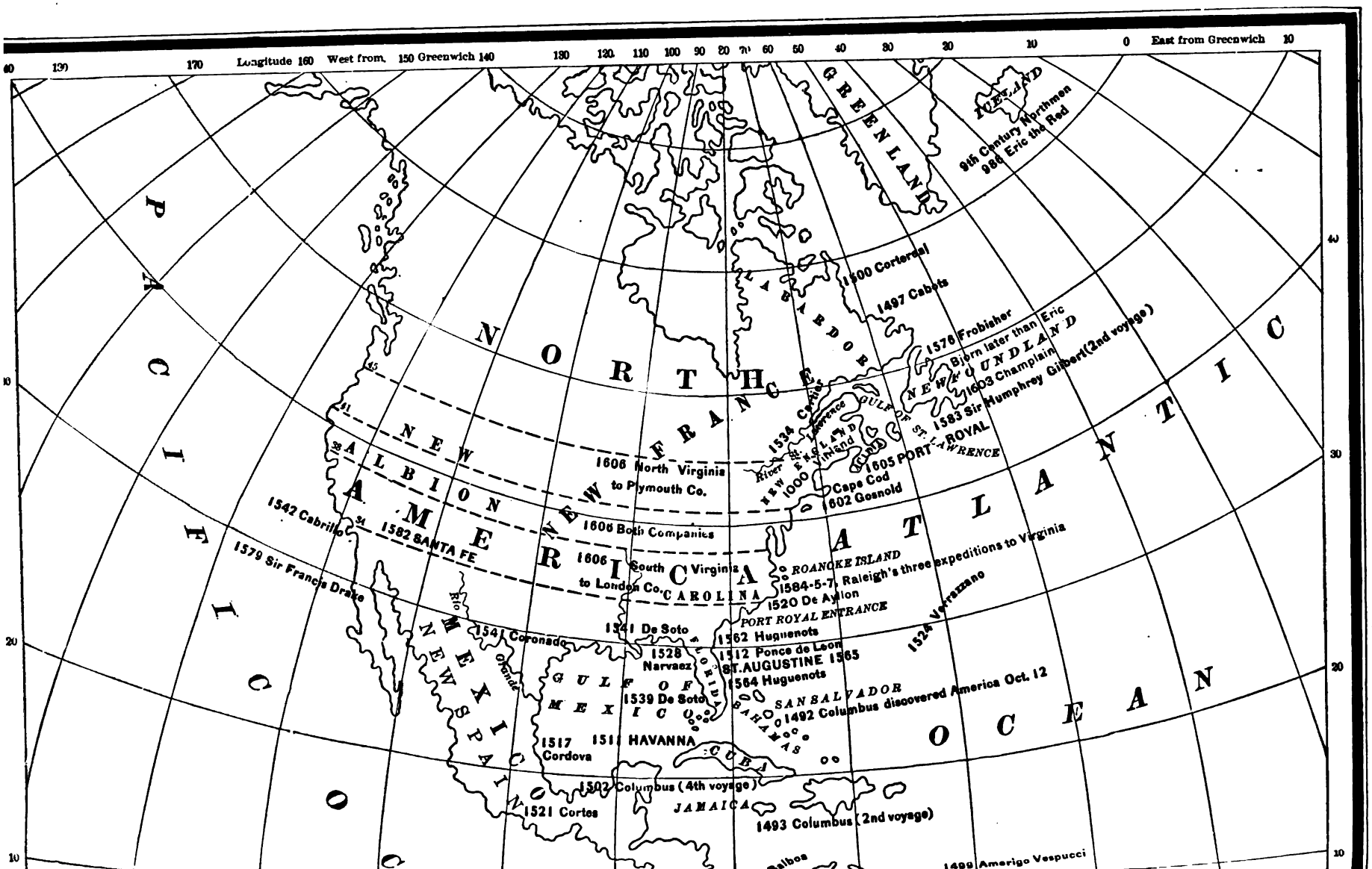

Longitude 160 West from 150 Greenwich 140
East from Greenwich
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH AMERICA
NEW FRANCE
NEW ALBION
NEW SPAIN
MEXICO
GREENLAND
ICELAND
9th Century Northmen
986 Eric the Red
LABARDOR
1500 Corterdal
1497 Cabots
1576 Frobisher
Bjorn later than Eric
NEWFOUNDLAND
1603 Champlain
1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert (2nd voyage)
1534 Cartier
River St. Lawrence
NEW ENGLAND
1000 Vinland
ACADIA
GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE
1605 PORT ROYAL
Cape Cod
1602 Gosnold
1606 North Virginia to Plymouth Co.
1606 Both Companies
1606 South Virginia to London Co.
CAROLINA
ROANOKE ISLAND
1584-5-7, Raleigh's three expeditions to Virginia
1520 De Ayllon
PORT ROYAL ENTRANCE
1524 Verrazzano
1542 Cabrillo
1582 SANTA FE
1579 Sir Francis Drake
Rio Grande
1541 Coronado
1541 De Soto
1562 Huguenots
1528 Narvaez
1512 Ponce de Leon
ST. AUGUSTINE 1565
1564 Huguenots
FLORIDA
GULF OF MEXICO
1539 De Soto
SAN SALVADOR
1492 Columbus discovered America Oct. 12
BAHAMAS
1517 Cordova
1511 HAVANNA
CUBA
1502 Columbus (4th voyage)
JAMAICA
1521 Cortes
1493 Columbus (2nd voyage)
1499 Amerigo Vespucci

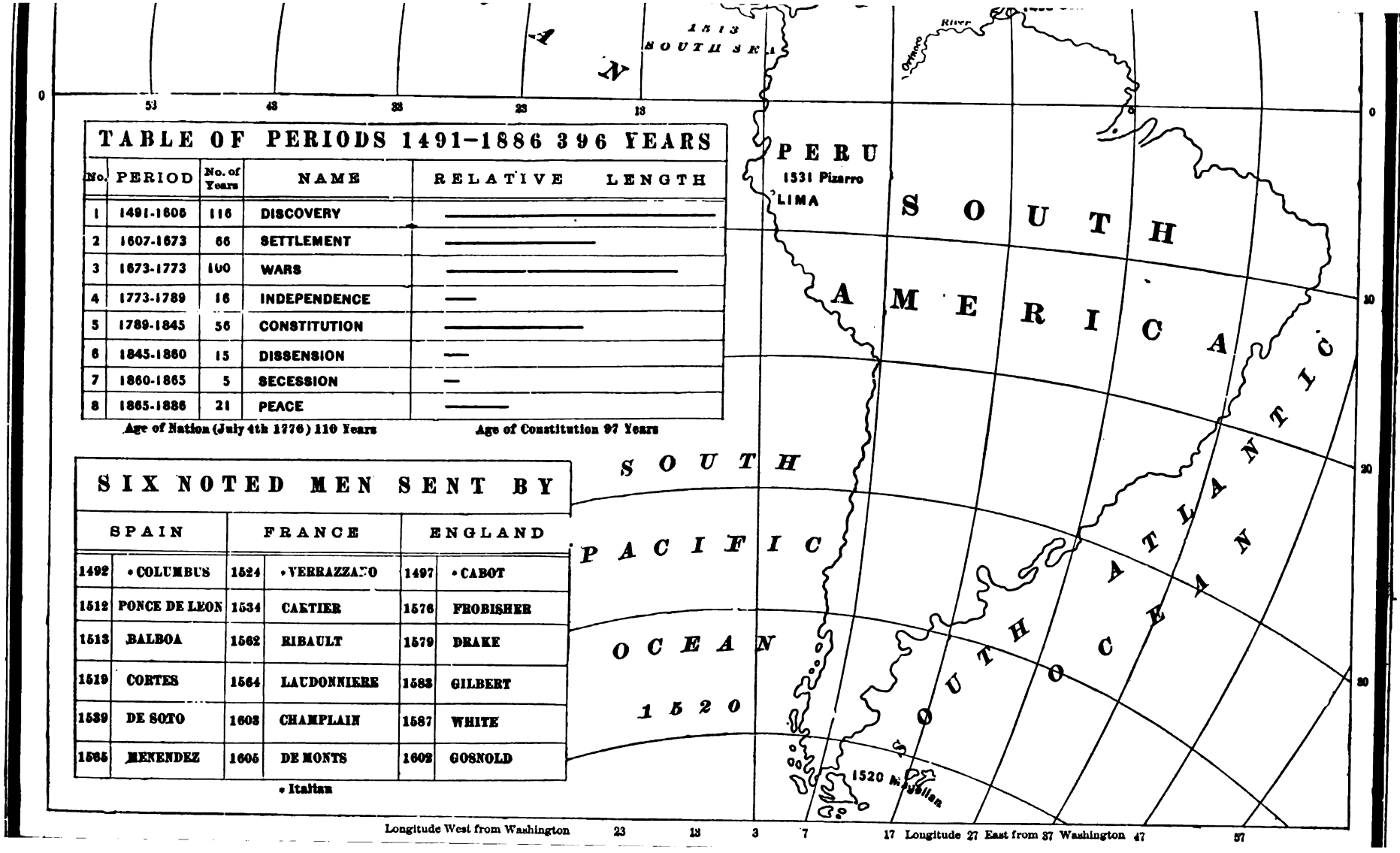

TABLE OF PERIODS 1491–1886 396 YEARS

No.	PERIOD	No. of Years	NAME	RELATIVE LENGTH
1	1491-1606	116	DISCOVERY	
2	1607-1673	66	SETTLEMENT	
3	1673-1773	100	WARS	
4	1773-1789	16	INDEPENDENCE	
5	1789-1845	56	CONSTITUTION	
6	1845-1860	15	DISSENSION	
7	1860-1865	5	SECESSION	
8	1865-1886	21	PEACE	

Age of Nation (July 4th 1776) 110 Years

Age of Constitution 97 Years

SIX NOTED MEN SENT BY

SPAIN		FRANCE		ENGLAND	
1492	*COLUMBUS	1524	*VERRAZZANO	1497	*CABOT
1512	PONCE DE LEON	1534	CARTIER	1576	FROBISHER
1513	BALBOA	1562	RIBAULT	1579	DRAKE
1519	CORTES	1564	LAUDONNIERE	1583	GILBERT
1539	DE SOTO	1608	CHAMPLAIN	1587	WHITE
1565	MENENDEZ	1605	DE MONTS	1602	GOSNOLD

*Italian

turn to France.—The Eighteenth Brumaire.—Bonaparte, First Consul.

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PART THIRD.

MODERN HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

DAWN OF THE MODERN ERA.

SECTION I.—PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION AND INVENTION.

MANY useful inventions during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries aided vastly in the return of European civilization at the close of the fifteenth century. The most important of these inventions was that of the art of printing, about the year 1440 A. D., by Laurence Koster, of Haarlem, in Holland, and John Gutenberg, of Mayence, in Germany, and Gutenberg's assistants, Faust and Schœffer. The result of this useful invention was a great increase in the number of books, which now, for the first time, were attainable by all classes. Printing was introduced into England by William Caxton, in 1476, as we have already remarked.

The invention of gunpowder by the German monk, Berthold Schwarz, prepared the way for the downfall of Chivalry, by the substitution of fire-arms for the old weapons of warfare. The invention of the *mariner's compass* by the Italian, Flavio Gioja, gave a fresh impulse to navigation; and very soon the gallant Portuguese navigators ventured out farther and farther from the coast than had been hitherto attempted by any mariner.

In the fifteenth century the long night of barbarism which had hung over Europe since the fall of the Western Roman Empire was rapidly passing away. The invention of the art of printing, and the flight of learned Greeks, with their valuable manuscripts, to Western Europe, upon the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, led to a revival of learning and the arts and sciences during the latter part of the fifteenth century; and the Greek and Hebrew languages now began to be studied in the great universities of Europe. Among those most instrumental in introducing the study of Greek were the two great scholars, John Reuchlin, of Pforzheim, in Germany, and Desiderius Erasmus, of Rotterdam, in Holland—both of whom flourished early in the sixteenth century.

The decay of the Feudal System about the close of the fifteenth century was followed by a change in the condition of the European states. During the Middle Ages, the great barons, or nobles, in every country of Europe, possessed the chief power; but about the close of the mediæval period the royal power became supreme in all the countries of Europe, and much of the freedom which the cities and towns in Spain, Italy, France, Germany and England had enjoyed was taken from them. Absolute monarchy was established in England by Henry VII., the first of the Tudor kings; in France by the crafty and cruel Louis XI.; in Austria by Maximilian I.; and in Spain by Ferdinand and Isabella. Chivalry had also decayed; and the knights, who at first had defended the weak and the oppressed, became highway robbers, especially in Germany, where they plundered and waylaid inoffensive peasants and merchants.

SECTION II.—THE SEA-PASSAGE TO INDIA.

THE Portuguese under Prince Henry—son of King John the Bastard (1385–1433)—took the lead in maritime discovery. This enlightened prince established an observatory near Cape St. Vincent, and gathered around him eminent astronomers and navigators from all quarters, and discussed with them his favorite project of finding a sea-passage to India by sailing around Africa. Under Prince Henry's patronage, the bold Portuguese navigators discovered and explored the western coast of Africa as far south as Cape de Verde; while the Madeira, the Azores and the Cape de Verde Islands were discovered and taken possession of by the Portuguese.

Under the patronage of King John the Perfect (1481–1495), the Portuguese crossed the equator for the first time, and the coast of Guinea was discovered and settled by the enterprising Portuguese. In 1486 Bartholomew Diaz, a daring Portuguese navigator, discovered the southern point of Africa, which was named the *Cape of Good Hope*, because there was now good hope of finding a sea-passage to India.

In 1497—during the reign of King Manuel the Great (1495–1521)—Vasco da Gama, another bold Portuguese navigator, sailed round the Cape of Good Hope to India; thus discovering the sea-passage to the East Indies—a discovery which revolutionized the world's commerce, by diverting the trade of the East from the Venetians to the Portuguese. Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut, where was planted a Portuguese colony—the first European settlement in the East Indies. In 1500 Cabral, another Portuguese navigator, discovered Brazil, which was occupied and settled by the Portuguese.

SECTION III.—DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

AMONG others who were attracted to Lisbon was Christopher Columbus, a Genoese sailor. Columbus believed the earth to be round, and that India could be reached sooner by sailing westward than by making the long voyage around Africa. He vainly endeavored to procure aid, first from his native city, Genoa, and afterward from the Kings of Portugal and England; but he finally obtained assistance from the noble-hearted queen, Isabella of Castile, who fitted out several vessels for him, and appointed him admiral and viceroy of all the lands he might discover.

On August 3, 1492, Christopher Columbus, with three Spanish vessels, left the harbor of Palos, in South-western Spain; and after a voyage of seventy days, he discovered, October 12, 1492, Guanahani, or Cat Island, which he named *San Salvador* (Holy Savior), and of which he took possession in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella—the joint sovereigns of Spain. Columbus found the inhabitants of a copper color and of savage manners; and, supposing he had only discovered the coast of India, he called the people *Indians*—a name ever since very inappropriately applied to the aborigines of the Western Continent. In 1493 he discovered the large and important islands of Cuba and Hayti, and founded the town of St. Domingo—the first European settlement in the New World. Several other large islands were discovered, and Columbus named the whole group the *West Indies*. When Columbus returned to Spain he was treated with great honors by the ruling sovereigns, and his progress from Palos to Barcelona was a triumphal procession.

After the great discovery of Columbus an

India-house was established at Seville and a custom-house at Cadiz, under the direction of a new board of trade. Pope Alexander VI. conferred upon the King and Queen of Spain all the lands then or thereafter to be discovered in the New World, and these territories were to be divided from those of Portugal by an imaginary line passing due north and south, a hundred leagues west of the Azores.

Columbus made three other voyages across the stormy Atlantic. On his second voyage, in 1493, he discovered Jamaica and the Caribee Islands. On his third voyage, in 1498, Columbus discovered the great continent of South America, at the mouth of the great river Orinoco. On his fourth and last voyage — during which he discovered Central America (A. D. 1501)— his enemies caused him to be sent back to Spain in irons. He died at Valladolid, in Spain, in 1506. Ferdinand ordered the following inscription to be put upon his tomb at Seville: "To Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a New World." His remains were afterwards conveyed to Havana, in Cuba, where, it is said, they still remain.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

Columbus did not know that he had discovered a new continent, but thought that he had only reached the eastern shores of Asia. This secret was revealed to Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine navigator, who explored the eastern coast of South America in 1498, and published a glowing description of that vast continent. In his honor, the new world was named *America*.

In 1496 John Cabot—a native of Venice, but at that time a merchant of Bristol, in England—obtained the aid of King Henry VII. of England in fitting out an expedition for the discovery of a North-west passage to India. The next year (1497), the expedition—commanded by John Cabot's son, Sebastian—sailed westward and discovered the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland. Thus Sebastian Cabot was the first discoverer of the continent of North America. In 1498 Sebastian Cabot again sailed westward and explored the greater part of the Atlantic coast of the present United States. In 1517 he made a third voyage to the polar seas; and in 1526—while in the service of Spain— he discovered the great river Rio de la Plata, in South America.

The aborigines, or first inhabitants, of the American continent when discovered by Europeans were a race of copper-colored savages, whom Columbus called *Indians*. The Indian is often spoken of as the *Red Man*, in contradistinction from the European, or White Man. The Indians were divided into a number of nations with distinct languages, and subdivided into numerous tribes with various dialects. These nations and tribes were very much alike in color, size, moral character, religion and government. Their rulers were called *sachems*, and their military leaders were called *chiefs*. They engaged in war, hunting and fishing. War parties would often seek renown in mortal combat. Their weapons were bows and arrows, tomahawks, or hatchets of stone, and

scalping-knives of bone. They tortured their prisoners and scalped their enemies. Their women were called *squaws*, their rude huts *wigwams*. They believed in a Great Good Spirit and a Great Evil Spirit. Sachems in council, in making peace, smoked the *calumet*, or pipe of peace. The Indians of Mexico and Peru were highly civilized. From ruins and mounds found in various parts of the present United States, it is believed that the Indians displaced a highly-civilized ancient race.

THE NIGHT OF OCTOBER 11, 1492.

CHAPTER II.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

SECTION I.—DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS IN AMERICA.

THE great discoveries of Columbus and the Cabots having revealed to Europeans the existence of a new continent a spirit of maritime enterprise was excited, which led other navigators to make voyages to the New World for purposes of discovery and exploration. We will now briefly allude to these.

We have already alluded to the discovery of Brazil by the Portuguese navigator Cabral in 1500. In 1501 Gaspar Cortereal, another Portuguese navigator, who had been commissioned by his king to make discoveries in the New World, touched at several points on the Atlantic coast of North America between Labrador and the present New Jersey, and kidnapped fifty natives for slaves. He made a second voyage, from which he never returned. As successful adventures in Africa and Asia engaged the entire attention of the Portuguese they attempted no further discoveries in America.

In 1509 Diego Columbus, the son of the great discoverer, having become hereditary viceroy of Spain in the New World, undertook the conquest and colonization of Cuba, which were accomplished in 1511.

In the year A. D. 1512 John Ponce de Leon, a Spaniard, sailed from Porto Rico, in search of a "fountain of youth," which was said to exist on the neighboring continent. This fountain was said to restore youth and to perpetuate it. On the 27th of March (1512), Ponce de Leon reached the North American continent at the great peninsula between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico, and named the domain *Florida*, because its banks were laden with flowers, and because the discovery was made on Pasquas de Flores, or Easter Sunday, when the Spanish churches were decorated with flowers. Ponce de Leon was afterward killed in a contest with the natives of Florida.

In 1513 the Spaniard Vasco Nuñez de Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Darien, or Panama, and discovered the Pacific Ocean, which he called *South Sea*. He waded into its waters in full costume, and took possession of sea and land in the name of his sovereign, the King of Spain. Balboa was put to death by order of the Spanish governor of Darien.

In 1517 Cordova, also a Spanish adventurer, discovered Mexico, the seat of the flourishing empire of the Aztecs, a highly civilized America Indian race, who had populous cities and towns, a regular government, and the various arts and customs of civilized life. In 1521 this empire was conquered by the Spaniards under Fernando Cortez, of which we shall give a fuller account in another section.

The name *Pacific Ocean* was given to the South Sea by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese navigator, who, in the service of the King of Spain, sailed through the straits, in the southern part of South America, which bear his name, in 1520, and who, several years afterward, was killed on the Philippine Islands by the natives, and whose followers returned to Spain by way of the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, thus completing the first circumnavigation of the globe.

In 1520 Vasquez de Ayllon, a Spanish

adventurer, visited the coast of the present South Carolina, then called *Chicora*, and enticed a number of unsuspecting natives on board his two vessels and sailed with them for Hayti, but one of his vessels foundered and all on board perished, while many on board the other ship absolutely refused food and died of starvation.

COLUMBUS AND THE ECLIPSE.

Stephen Gomez, a Spaniard, who had accompanied Magellan on his search for a North-west passage to India, sailed on a voyage in 1525 for the purpose of discovering such a passage, and touched at various points on the Atlantic coast of the present United States from Delaware to New England. As he failed in the great object of his expedition he kidnapped many Indians on board his vessels for the purpose of selling them into slavery.

In 1528 Pamphilo de Narvaez, a Spanish adventurer, attempted the conquest of Florida, but failed, and lost his life in a conflict with the natives.

In 1524 Francis I., King of France, employed John Verrazzani, a Florentine, to make discoveries in the New World. Verrazzani explored the Atlantic coast of North America, from the mouth of the Cape Fear River to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and named the region *New France*. In 1534 the French king sent Jacques Cartier, a Frenchman, on an expedition to New France. Cartier discovered the mouth of the great river which he named St. Lawrence. In 1535 Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence, exploring the country to Montreal.

In 1539 Ferdinand De Soto, then the Spanish governor of Cuba, landed in Florida, and, proceeding westward, discovered the

great river Mississippi, and explored the continent as far west as the Rocky Mountains. De Soto died on the banks of the Mississippi river in 1541; and the remnant of his followers, having suffered terribly, found their way to a Spanish settlement in Mexico. In 1539 the great Amazon river, in South America, was first explored by Orellana, a Spaniard.

The Spaniards were the first to make discoveries on the Pacific shores and in the interior of North America. In 1541 Alarçon sailed north along the Pacific coast almost to the site of San Francisco. In 1542 De Cabrillo explored the same coast almost to the mouth of the Columbia river. The same year Coronado sailed up the Gulf of California and discovered the Gila river.

SECTION II.—THE SPANISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.

HAVING given an account of the discoveries of the Spaniards, Portuguese, English and the French in America, we will now proceed to a view of the Spanish conquest and colonization in America. The Spaniards made settlements in various parts of North and South America; and their greatest exploits were the conquest of two civilized Indian empires—that of Mexico in North America and that of Peru in South America. Before proceeding with the Spanish conquest of these countries, we will give a brief historical sketch of Mexico.

The history of Mexico goes back as far as the sixth century of the Christian era. The native Mexican traditions, and the remains of ancient structures which are still to be found in the country, make it evident that the primitive inhabitants were possessed of a civilization equal to that of the Aztecs, who occupied the country when it was conquered by the Spaniards; but those aborigines of Mexico are a wholly prehistoric race.

The Toltecs entered the valley of Mexico early in the seventh century and built the city of Tollan, or Tula, and made it their capital. Some writers believe these people to have come from Central America, while others think them to have migrated from Asia by way of Behring Strait. The Toltecs are said to have been an agricultural people, and to have understood the mechanical arts. Their cities were of the cyclopæan character, and these people originated the system of astronomy which the Aztecs afterward adopted. Early in the eighth century a Toltec kingdom is said to have been founded by Icoatizin; and this kingdom lasted five centuries, at the end of which time it fell in consequence of a long period of pestilence and civil war, and the greater portion of the Toltecs migrated southward.

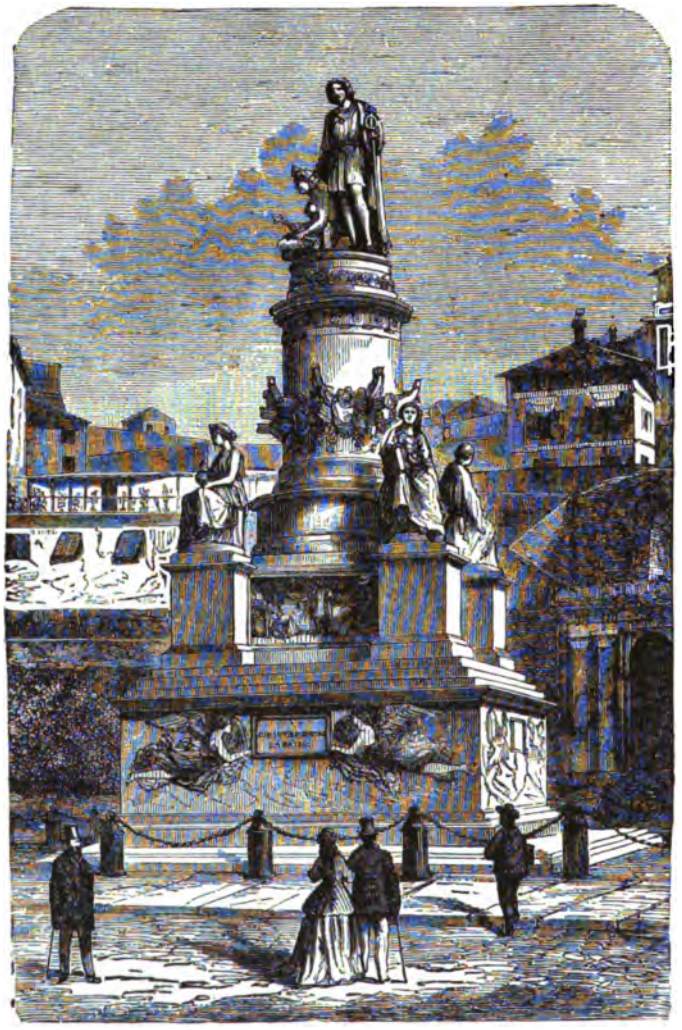
In the thirteenth century, soon after the Toltecs had emigrated from Meico, the Chichimecs, a fierce savage tribe who are said to have worshiped the sun as their father and the moon as their mother, migrated from the north into Mexico. The few Toltecs who remained in the country submitted to the invading Chichimecs, who settled peacefully in the country and became amalgamated with the Toltecs. From this amalgamation sprang the Colhuis, or Culhuas, who founded the kingdom of Colhuaca.

After the immigration of the Chichimecs into Mexico a number of other tribes entered the country, the most powerful of whom were the Tepanecs, who established their capital at Atzcapozalco, and founded one of the most powerful of the Mexican states. Another of these tribes were the Techichimecs, who founded the republic of Tlascala. All these tribes spoke the Nohoa, or Nahuatl, language. Another tribe were the Alcolhuis, who were considered the most refined, and were of the same race as the Toltecs. The Alcolhuis taught the Chichimecs agriculture, the mechanical arts, and

the manners and customs of city life. In the course of time the Alcolhuis became amalgamated with the Chichimecs, and the two races founded the kingdom of Tezuco, or Acolhuacan.

The Aztecs, or Mexicans, were the last of the tribes who permanently settled in the valley of Mexico. They had been in the country as long as the other tribes, but had not chosen any permanent abode. They migrated from Azatlan, a region of the North whose location is unknown, and they seem to have made several prolonged halts on their journey southward. The first of these halts seems to have been on the shores of the Great Salt Lake in Utah. Another halt appears to have been at the Gila river, and a third in the vicinity of the Presidio de los Llanos.

About A. D. 1195 the Aztecs arrived in Anáhuac, or the valley of Mexico, where they led a nomadic life for the next one hundred and thirty years, during which they waged an almost constant war with the other tribes, in which their numbers were vastly diminished. In 1325 the Aztecs founded the city of Tenochtitlan on the islands of Lake Tezuco. The name of this city was afterward changed to Mexico, in honor of the Aztec god of war, Mexitli.



STATUE OF COLUMBUS AT GENOA.

The other tribes bitterly hated the Aztecs, who had a severe struggle to found their kingdom; but the Aztecs persevered, and finally increased in wealth and power to such an extent that they were enabled to reduce their enemies to subjection. The conquering Aztecs subdued the surrounding country and established garrisons at commanding points; and finally all of Central and Southern Mexico, and a part of the country to the north, were included in the Aztec Empire. As the Aztecs grew more powerful they enlarged and improved their capital until its magnificence and extent excited the wonder and admiration of the Spanish conquerors, who were familiar with the splendors of the Old World.

For twenty-seven years after the founding of their capital the government of the Aztecs was administered by a council of twenty nobles. In 1352 they changed their government to an elective monarchy, and chose ACAMAPITZIN, or ACAMAPICHTLE, for their first king. At first the royal power was limited, but it increased with the Aztec nation's conquests and wealth.

The Aztecs made rapid progress in civilization, and soon became the most highly civilized nation in Mexico. Their peculiar civilization was of a high order. The king was elected by the nobles. The candidate for the throne was required to be at least thirty years of age, and to have been a general in the royal armies. Military service was the basis of all rank in the Aztec state, and the nobles were the officers of the army. The Aztec king was vested with very great authority, but his powers were regulated by a fixed code of laws. The priests ranked next to the king and the nobles, and their power was restricted to spiritual matters. The priests exercised great influence, as they had charge of the education of the young, and were consulted in domestic affairs.

A system of rigid morality prevailed among all classes of Aztecs. Murder, theft, adultery and drunkenness were punished with death. Their civil code was as mild as their penal code was severe. A well-arranged system of courts existed in the capital and the provincial towns, at which complaints were heard and justice was administered. Marriage was encouraged, and the family relations constituted a prominent and favorable feature of Aztec life. Only the men were allowed the right to hold property.

The crown derived its revenues from state lands set apart in certain provinces, and from a tax upon agricultural products and a tribute consisting of articles of food and manufactured wares. The Aztec army was regularly organized, and its discipline was firm and well planned. The towns of the kingdom were connected with the capital by well-built roads, which the government kept in good repair, and an active commerce was carried on between the different parts of the kingdom. Large fleets of boats engaged in this traffic covered the lakes. No beasts of burden were used, and the Aztecs looked with wonder upon the horses which the Spaniards introduced into the country.

The Aztecs carried on mining very successfully and were skillful in metallurgy. They were likewise well versed in astronomy; knew the true length of the year, the nature and cause of eclipses, the period of the solstices and the equinoxes, and the transit of the sun across the zenith of Mexico; and had a calendar which was ingenious and accurate. They possessed a remarkable knowledge of medicine, surgery, botany and natural history; and had made a wonderful progress in the science of geography at the time of their conquest by the Spaniards. Their agricultural and military implements were made of copper, bronze and obsidian. Agriculture was carried on by means of irrigation.

AMERIGO VESPUCCI.

The Aztecs were a deeply religious people, and were extremely zealous in the practice of the rites and ceremonies of their religion. Their religion was a polytheism. They believed in a Supreme Being, invisible, but omnipresent, omnipotent and omniscient, and requiring numerous assistants in the performance of his will, each of whom presided over some special natural phenomenon or phase of human existence.

SEBASTIAN CABOT AT LABRADOR.

Huitzilopochtli, the god of war, was the chief deity and the patron divinity of the Aztec nation. Next was Quetzalcoatl, the "white god" of Mexican mythology, who taught the Aztecs the arts of peace and good government, and forbade human sacrifices. All the Aztec gods were represented by idols of clay, wood, stone or precious metals. Great numbers of priests were attached to the temples, and the religious ceremonies were conducted on a scale of the greatest magnificence.

The Aztecs had two kinds of temples, low and circular, or high and pyramidal, on the tops of which the sacrifices took place. Torquemada estimates that there were forty thousand of these temples throughout the Aztec Empire. There were hundreds of them in each principal Aztec city, besides the great temple with several smaller ones within its precincts. There were other small courts with as many as six temples in each outlying quarter of the city, and there were temples on the mountains and along the public highways.

The Aztec temples were solid pyramidal masses of earth cased with brick or stone, many of them being more than one hundred feet square and of a still greater height. The ascent was by flights of steps on the outside; and on the broad, flat summit were sanctuaries which contained the idols of the deities and the altars on which fires were constantly burning. The principal religious ceremonial of the Aztecs were human sacrifices; and twenty-five hundred persons, mainly captives taken in war, are said to have been annually sacrificed on the altars of the capital.

At the time of the Spanish conquest of Mexico, Tenochtitlan, or the city of Mexico, the capital of the Aztec Empire, was a large and splendid city, being nine miles in circumference, and having about sixty thousand houses and probably a population of half a million. Most of the streets were short and narrow, and were lined with mean houses. The large streets were intersected by many canals crossed by bridges. The royal palace near the center of the city was a pile of low, irregular stone edifices of en-

ormous size. Another palace, which was assigned to Fernando Cortez when he entered the city, was large enough to accommodate his entire army.

The most remarkable building of the entire city was the great Teocalli, or temple, completed in 1486; which was encompassed by a stone wall about eight feet high, ornamented on the other side by figures of serpents in bas-relief, and pierced on its four sides by gateways opening on the four main streets. Over each gate was an arsenal; and near the temple were barracks, which were garrisoned by ten thousand soldiers. The temple was a solid pyramidal structure of earth and pebbles, coated on the outside with hewn stone. It was square, its four sides facing the cardinal points of the compass; and it was five stories high, each story receding so as to be smaller than the one below it.

The ascent to the temple was by a flight of one hundred and fourteen steps on the outside, so arranged that it was necessary to pass around the whole edifice four times to reach the top; and the base of the temple is believed to have been three hundred feet square. The summit of the temple was a large area paved with broad, flat stones; and on it were two towers or sanctu-

BALBOA TAKING POSSESSION OF THE PACIFIC OCEAN.

aries, before each of which was an altar on which a fire was kept constantly burning. The top of this remarkable edifice commanded a splendid view of the city, the lake, the valley and the surrounding mountains.

The capital had an efficient and vigilant police, and a thousand men were employed daily in watering and sweeping its streets. The lake that surrounded the city was very brackish, and pure water was supplied to the inhabitants by means of an aqueduct from the neighboring hill of Chapultepec, where Montezuma had a summer palace surrounded by vast and magnificent gardens.

The Aztec king AHUITZOTL was succeeded on the Mexican throne by his nephew

FERDINAND MAGELLAN.

MONTEZUMA II., in 1502. Montezuma II. was an active and warlike sovereign, and made conquests as far south into Central America as Honduras and Nicaragua. He made numerous changes in the internal administration of his kingdom, and was distinguished for the strictness and stringency with which he executed the laws. He liberally rewarded those who served him faithfully, and expended vast sums on the public works. He maintained his court on a scale of magnificence never before equaled in Mexico. Heavy taxes were imposed upon his subjects to provide for these expenditures, and these caused frequent insurrections.

As we have seen, the Spaniard Cordova discovered Mexico in 1517. In 1519, when King Montezuma II. was at the height of his power and glory, Fernando Cortez, a Spanish adventurer, at the head of five hundred and fifty Spaniards, and with ten pieces of cannon and about a dozen horsemen, invaded the Aztec Empire for purposes of conquest, landing on the eastern coast. Cortez defeated the natives who endeavored to prevent his landing, founded the city of Vera Cruz (True Cross), burned his ships, left a small garrison to defend his new conquest, and advanced into the interior.

Cortez first subdued the warlike republic of Tlascala, defeating the Tlascalans in four battles and entering the city of Tlascala on September 18, 1519. The natives were astonished at the fair skin and the martial prowess of the Spanish invaders, and believed them to be beings of divine origin, so that a rumor was circulated that the gods had undertaken the conquest of the country. Cortez vainly endeavored to persuade the Tlascalans to abjure their religion and to accept Christianity, but he succeeded in inducing them to acknowledge themselves vassals of the King of Spain.

Cortez remained at Tlascala twenty days; after which he resumed his march toward the city of Tenochtitlan, or Mexico, accompanied by a force of several thousand Tlascalans who had espoused his cause. His route lay through Cholula, the inhabitants of which were induced by the Aztecs to attempt a treacherous attack upon the Spanish invaders. Cortez severely punished the Cholulans for their intended attack, after which he resumed his march to the city of Mexico, before which he arrived November 8, 1519.

King Montezuma II. had already sent ambassadors to Cortez to warn him not to approach the capital. The Aztec king now changed his policy, received the Spanish invaders with great pomp, and assigned them one of the largest and strongest palaces in the city for their quarters. The Spaniards soon converted this palace into a fortress. They were very much surprised at the extent and magnificence of the Aztec capital, and from the very beginning they prepared to conquer it.

The Aztecs strongly disapproved of their king's course in permitting the Spaniards to enter the capital, and manifested their hostility to the invaders on every possible occasion. At length a party of seventeen Aztecs attacked a Spanish detachment. Cortez thereupon sought an interview with Montezuma II. in the Aztec monarch's own palace, seized him and conveyed him a captive to the Spanish quarters, and threatened him with instant death if he should give any sign to the multitude in the streets that he was a prisoner. The Aztecs would have altempted to rescue their captive king had he not assured them that he was going of his own free will to visit the Spanish commander.

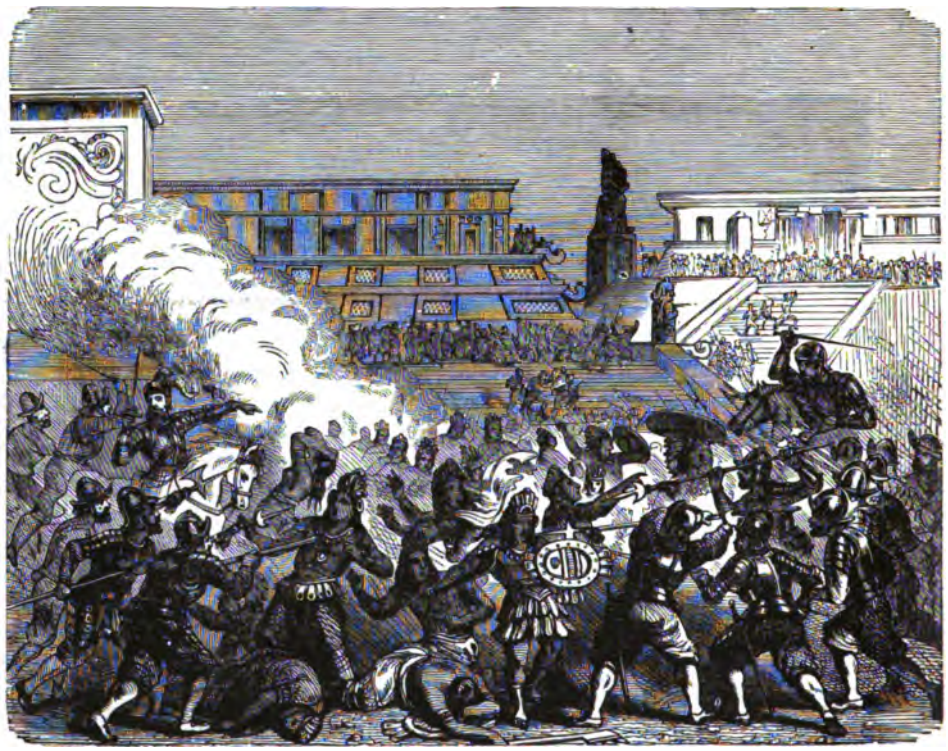
When Cortez arrived at his quarters he put his royal captive in irons, and captured and burned to death the seventeen natives who had attacked the Spaniards. He then forced Montezuma II. to take an oath of allegiance to the King of Spain, and to induce his nobles to do the same; after which he obtained from the captive monarch a sum of gold equal in value to one hundred thousand ducats.

In this emergency Cortez was informed that an expedition from Spain had landed on the eastern coast of Mexico, under the command of Narvaez, who had come to take

from Cortez the command of the Spanish troops in Mexico. Cortez left two hundred of his troops to hold the Spanish position in the city of Mexico, and hastened with seventy troops to Cholula, where he was reinforced by one hundred and fifty troops whom he had left there, after which he marched against Narvaez, who was encamped in one of the Cempoallan cities with nine hundred Spanish soldiers, eighty horses, and a dozen pieces of artillery. By a bold stroke Cortez captured Narvaez and his entire force. The vanquished troops of Narvaez readily enlisted in the service of their captor, and with this reinforcement Cortez returned to the city of Mexico.

Upon his return to the Aztec capital Cortez found the inhabitants in open rebellion against his troops. He brought out Montezuma and forced him to address his subjects; but the enraged Aztecs discharged a volley of missiles at their captive king, who thus received a mortal wound, of which he died several days afterward, June, 1520.

The Aztecs now assailed the Spaniards with desperate fury, drove them from the city, and literally annihilated their rear-guard in their retreat across the causeway leading to the mainland. The retreat lasted six days; but at length Cortez halted on the plain of Otumba, where an overwhelming Aztec force attacked him July 7, 1520, but he came forth victorious. This battle settled the fate of Mexico. Cortez instantly proceeded to Tlascala, where he collected an auxiliary force of natives, after which he speedily reduced the neighboring provinces, and again appeared before the city of Mexico, April 28, 1521.



SLAUGHTER OF THE MEXICANS AT CHOLULA.

GUATEMOZIN, the new Aztec king, the nephew and son-in-law of the ill-fated Montezuma II., was a man of firmness and decision. He held his capital against the Spanish invaders for seventy-seven days, during which the city was literally reduced to ruins by the Indian allies of Cortez. By the final assault, August 15, 1521, the Spaniards captured what was left of the

beautiful capital of the Aztec Empire. King Guatemozin sought to escape with his family by the lake; but was pursued and taken prisoner by the Spaniards, who treated him with great cruelty, putting him on a bed of fiery coals, from which he was at once released by Cortez. But Cortez soon put Guatemozin and many of his nobles to death.

With the conquest of the remainder of the country the same year the Aztec Empire ended, and for three centuries (A.D. 1521–1821) Mexico was a province of Spain. After effecting the conquest of the country, Cortez rebuilt the city of Mexico upon its present plan, employing a large force of natives for that purpose. He exerted himself to introduce European civilization and Roman Catholic Christianity into the country. He established a military government in the conquered land with himself as its chief. In October, 1522, King Charles I. of Spain, Emperor Charles V. of Germany, issued a decree naming the conquered country *New Spain*, and appointed Cortez governor of the new province. The Spanish conquerors enslaved the natives, and compelled them to work in the mines and to till the soil.

MONTEZUMA II., THE LAST KING OF THE AZTECS.

In 1528 the Spanish king suppressed the system set up by Cortez, and made New Spain a Spanish viceroyalty, which it remained during the entire subsequent period of the Spanish dominion, during which period there were sixty-four viceroys, all but one of them being natives of Spain. The province continued to improve, in spite of the policy pursued by Spain, which aimed at little besides extracting as much treasure from the province as it would yield.

Notwithstanding all his services to the Spanish crown, Cortez was treated with ingratitude by his sovereign, and he died in comparative obscurity. It was with great difficulty that he could obtain an audience from the Emperor Charles V. When one day the conqueror of Mexico rushed through the multitude which surrounded the Emperor's coach, and placed his foot on the step of the door, Charles inquired who this man was. Cortez replied: "It is he who has given you more kingdoms than your ancestors left you cities."

The Spanish conquerors devoted their first efforts to propagating the Christian religion in Mexico, and for this purpose they invited missionaries from Europe. Between the years 1522 and 1545 numbers of monks came into Mexico from various parts of

Europe to assist in the conversion of the natives; and to conciliate the Mexicans many practices hitherto unknown to the Roman ritual were admitted and consecrated.

The missionaries honorably exerted themselves to protect the Mexicans from the sanguinary cruelty of the Spaniards. Among these Sahagun and Las Casas were especially distinguished for their benevolent exertions in behalf of the conquered Mexicans. These two humane missionaries obtained bulls from the Pope and edicts from the Spanish government fully recognizing the claims of the Indians to the rights of humanity, and they saved the native Mexicans from the wretched fate which swept away the native population of almost every other Spanish American colony, though they failed to obtain a full measure of justice. The protection thus accorded by the regular and secular clergy to the native Mexicans caused them to be more ardently attached to the Roman Catholic Church than were the Spaniards themselves; and this attachment is still felt by the Mexicans, though their country has recovered its independence. But the native Mexicans were reduced to a condition of abject serfdom, differing little from that of the serfs of Russia or Poland.

Peru, which was conquered by the Spaniards under Francisco Pizarro in 1532, was originally inhabited by several Indian tribes who possessed a high degree of civilization, a simple but just code of laws and a well-arranged system of government under a sovereign called the *Inca*. The Peruvian government was an absolute despotism mildly administered, and the military class was the most favored, as the great aim of the state was territorial expansion. The civilization of the ancient Peruvians, though vastly superior to that of the Indian nations around them, was inferior to that of the Aztecs in Mexico. Education was restricted to the ruling class, and there were laws which compelled a son to pursue his father's occupation, prohibiting him from receiving an education superior to his station in life.

The religion of the ancient Peruvians consisted in worshiping the sun, from which the Inca claimed descent. The Inca's person was considered divine. He had numerous wives, the chief one of which was required to be his eldest sister. He also had as many concubines as he desired. His son by his principal wife, his eldest sister, was the heir to the throne. When the Inca died he was supposed to have been called home to the mansion of his father, the sun.

In 1512 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, the governor of the Spanish colony of Darien, on the Isthmus of Panama, was informed by the Indians that there was a country far south of the isthmus where gold was as commonly in use as iron was with the Spaniards. Balboa vainly endeavored to find this rich land.

In 1524 Francisco Pizarro, a Spanish adventurer, made a voyage to the coast of Peru, but failed to accomplish anything. In 1531 the King of Spain granted Pizarro the titles of Governor and Captain-General of all the countries that he should conquer; and that adventurer sailed for Peru with his four brothers and a few followers, arriving in that country late in January, after a voyage of fourteen days from Panama. Pizarro captured and plundered a town in the province of Coaque, and was soon afterward reinforced by the arrival of one hundred and thirty Spaniards under Almagro, his second in command. The Spanish adventurers then laid the foundations of the town of San Miguel in the valley of Tangarala.

At that time the empire of the Incas was distracted by a civil war. HUAYNA CAPAC, the late Inca, had divided his dominions between his two sons, HUASCAR and ATAHUALPA. In the civil war which had broken out between the two brothers Atahualpa had defeated his brother and taken him prisoner. He now encamped with his army at Cajamarca, whither Pizarro hastened to meet him in September, 1532, with a force of one hundred and seventy-seven men, with the professed design of acting as mediator between Atahualpa and his brother.

but with the perfidious purpose of seizing the victorious Inca in the same manner that Cortez had seized the unfortunate Montezuma II. in Mexico. The Inca received Pizarro with great kindness and readily consented to an interview. The Inca visited the Spanish invaders with a barbarous magnificence and an ostentatious display of wealth which inflamed the cupidity of Pizarro and his followers.

On reaching the Spanish camp the Inca was addressed by Valverde, the chaplain of the invaders, in a long discourse. After a brief notice of the mysteries of creation and redemption, the priest proceeded to explain the doctrine of the Pope's supremacy. He dwelt upon the grant which Pope Alexander VI. had made to the Spanish crown, and by virtue of that grant he called upon Atahualpa to embrace Christianity at once and to acknowledge himself a vassal of the King of Spain. The Inca was utterly perplexed, and inquired where Valverde had learned such wonderful things. The priest, showing his breviary to the Inca, replied: "In this book." Atahualpa took the book, turned over the leaves, and then put it to his ear to hear what the book had to say. He suddenly flung the breviary to the ground, exclaiming: "This tells me nothing!" Valverde exclaimed: "Blasphemy! blasphemy! to arms, to arms, my Christian brethren! avenge the profanation of God's word by the polluted hands of infidels!"

This solemn farce seems to have been preconcerted. Before Valverde had ceased speaking, the trumpets sounded a charge, and a dreadful fire of musketry and artillery was opened on the defenseless Peruvians. In the midst of their surprise and consternation, they were charged by the Spanish cavalry; and, as the Peruvians had never before seen a horse, the appearance of the Spanish cavalry seemed like something supernatural, and increased their dismay to utter helplessness. Atahualpa was seized and carried a prisoner to the Spanish camp, while the triumphant invaders satiated themselves with the rich spoils of conquest.

ATAHUALPA, THE LAST INCA OF PERU.

The unfortunate Inca endeavored to obtain his release by paying a ransom of gold equal in value to seventeen and a half million dollars. The cruel and treacherous Pizarro accepted the offer; but when he had received the gold he refused to release Atahualpa, and caused him to be tried under the most iniquitous pretenses and sentenced to be burned to death. When the Inca consented to receive baptism from Valverde his sentence was so far mitigated

that he was first strangled at the stake, after which his body was burned, August 29, 1533.

The victorious Pizarro then marched upon Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Incas; and, as Huascar had been slain by order of Atahualpa, the Spanish conqueror proclaimed MANCO CAPAC, a half-brother of Atahualpa, Inca. For the purpose of establishing a new capital for Peru near the Pacific coast, Pizarro founded the city of Lima, in the valley of the river Rimac, January 6, 1535.

The Spanish conquerors treated the vanquished Peruvians with the most barbarous cruelty. At last the oppressed Peruvians, driven to despair, rose in arms under Manco Capac to recover their independence, took and burned Cuzco, and massacred such of the Spaniards as they took prisoners.

The Spanish robbers quarreled among themselves about the division of the spoils of conquest; and a civil war broke out between Pizarro and Almagro, in which Almagro was defeated, taken prisoner and executed. The triumphant Pizarro then crushed the outbreak of the Peruvians, whom he treated with the most fiendish cruelty and reduced to abject slavery. He set up a military government and ruled the province with merciless rigor. For almost three centuries Peru remained a Spanish province (A. D. 1532–1821).

When the King of Spain was informed of Pizarro's tyranny in Peru he sent Vaca de Castro over in 1540 to investigate the matter. Before Castro arrived at Lima the cruel Pizarro was assassinated by Almagro's son, who proclaimed himself governor of Peru. The younger Almagro took up arms to resist Castro, who had orders to assume the governorship in case of Pizarro's death; but Almagro was defeated, taken prisoner and executed. Castro was recognized as governor of Peru, and devoted his attention to a settlement of the affairs of the province.

Castro was superseded by Blasco Nuñez Vela, who had been appointed viceroy of Peru by the King of Spain, and who came charged with the duty of inaugurating a new and better system of government, and especially to liberate the Indians from slavery and to impose a fairer system of taxation upon them. These measures produced a civil war in Peru, in which the rebels were under the leadership of Gonzalo Pizarro, son of the conqueror of Peru. This civil war lasted several years, and ended in the defeat of the insurgents and the capture and execution of Gonzalo Pizarro in 1548. The government of Peru was then established on a more solid and permanent basis, and for almost three centuries Peru remained tranquil as a Spanish province.

The government which the Spaniards established in Peru was far more oppressive and iniquitous than that which they introduced into Mexico, because the Peruvian mines were almost the only objects which engaged the attention of the Spaniards from the time of their conquest of the country. The Spaniards devised a horrible system of conscription for working the mines; and all the Indians between the ages of eighteen and fifty were enrolled in seven lists, the persons on each list being obliged to work in the mines for six months, so that this forced labor came on the unfortunate Indians at intervals of three and a half years. Four out of every five were supposed to perish annually in these deadly labors; and, to add to the misery of the natives, they were not permitted to purchase the necessaries of life from any except privileged dealers, who remorselessly and unscrupulously robbed them of their earnings.

At the time of the Spanish conquest of Peru, Chili was occupied by a number of kindred Indian tribes who called themselves *Alapu-che*, "the people of the land," and who spoke a common language. The northern part of Chili had been conquered by the Inca of Peru about the middle of the fifteenth century, but the Incas were never able to subdue the southern tribes.

After the Spanish conquest of Peru, the Spaniards, finding that Northern Chili had been subject to the Incas, resolved to conquer that country likewise. A Spanish

expedition under Diego Almagro entered Chili from Peru in 1535, and advanced southward into the territories of the Purumancian Indians, who drove them back to Peru.

In 1540 Pedro de Valdivia, an able and prudent Spanish officer, led an expedition against Chili, defeated the Indians, and founded the city of Santiago, named in honor of the patron saint of Spain. The Indians made a desperate effort to destroy the town, but were defeated. After receiving a reinforcement from Peru, Valdivia advanced southward into the country of the Araucanian Indians, who attacked and almost annihilated his army, thus compelling him to retreat to Santiago. He returned to Peru for reinforcements; and in 1550 he came back to Santiago with a large and well-armed force, and marched southward and founded the city of Concepcion, on the present site of Penco. Four thousand Araucanians attacked Concepcion, but were defeated with great slaughter, their chief being among the slain. The war proceeded with terrible fury; and in 1559 Valdivia was captured and put to death by the Indians, who then took and destroyed Concepcion, and even marched upon Santiago, but were driven back.

For more than a century after their arrival in Chili the Spaniards made persistent efforts to conquer the Araucanians, but always failed. In 1665 they concluded a treaty with the Indian tribes south of the Bobio, acknowledging their independence; but the war was renewed in 1723, and lasted for half a century with brief intervals of peace, until 1773. The Spaniards made Chili a viceroyalty.

The Indian kingdom of Quito, which had also been subdued by the Incas of Peru and made a part of their empire, also came under the Spanish dominion, and was made a presidency of the viceroyalty of Peru, being ruled by Spanish governors from 1553 to 1822. The towns of Quito and Guayaquil were founded by the Spaniards in 1535, the same year as the founding of Lima.

The coast of Venezuela had been discovered by Columbus during his third voyage, in 1498. In 1499 Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci explored the coast of Venezuela and Colombia; and, finding an Indian village built on piles over the water on the shore of Lake Maracaybo, they named it *Venezuela*, or Little Venice—a name eventually applied to the entire territory of the present republic. The Spaniards soon took possession of both Venezuela and Colombia, and gold was discovered in the coast range in 1540. They founded the colony of New Granada in 1510, which became a separate viceroyalty in 1718. In the territory of Venezuela the Spaniards founded some flourishing towns—Cumana in 1520, Coro in 1527, Tocuyo in 1545, Barquisemeto in 1552, Valencia in 1555, Carácas in 1567, and Porto Bello in 1584.

The discovery of silver in the territory of Bolivia and Buenos Ayres quickened Spanish enterprise in South America. Bolivia, or Upper Peru, which had also formed a part of the empire of the Incas of Peru, came into the possession of the Spaniards after their conquest of Peru, and formed part of the viceroyalty of Peru until 1776, when it became a part of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. Buenos Ayres was founded by the Spaniards in 1535. The colony was a part of the viceroyalty of Peru until 1776, when the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres was created, which included Buenos Ayres, with Uruguay, Paraguay and Bolivia.

The first Spanish settlement in Paraguay was Asuncion, founded in 1536. The colony prospered wonderfully, and was erected into a bishopric in 1555. In 1557 Jesuit missions were established in Paraguay, and these met with wonderful success in the Christianization and civilization of the neighboring Indians, so that two centuries later there were one hundred and fifty thousand civilized Indians in Paraguay.

While the Spaniards had thus been taking possession of and colonizing Mexico and South America during the sixteenth century, the oldest towns within the limits of the present United States were also founded by the Spaniards. In 1565 Pedro

Melendez de Avilez, after massacring a colony of French Protestants that had attempted to settle on the St. John's River in Flordia, founded the city of St. Augustine, on the eastern coast of Florida. In 1582 De Espejo founded Santa Fé, in New Mexico.

Thus, in the sixteenth century, Spain obtained possession of Florida, Mexico, Central America, and all of South America except Guiana and Brazil, the latter of which was claimed by the Portuguese. The precious metals which Spain obtained from her American possessions contributed to make her for a time the leading power of Europe, but an inordinate thirst for the gold and silver of America caused the Spaniards to neglect agriculture and manufactures. The Spanish American colonies increased very slowly in population, and none of these were as prosperous as the Philippine Islands, which had been taken possession of by the Spaniards and settled by a colony from Mexico in 1564.

SECTION III.—PORTUGUESE EMPIRE IN ASIA AND AMERICA.

THE great voyages of Bartholomew Diaz and Vasco da Gama, which, at the close of the fifteenth century, made known to Europe the existence of a sea-passage to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, led to the founding of a great Portuguese colonial empire in Southern and Eastern Asia. The founding of Calicut, on the Malabar coast of India, in 1498, was the first step in the establishment of such a dominion.

Vasco da Gama's successor was Cabral, who discovered Brazil in 1500, during his voyage to India. The Portuguese power in India was extended by the gallant Almeida, Cabral's successor, who reduced many of the native princes of Hindoostan to tribute and forced them to consent to the establishment of Portuguese factories in their principal cities, and who was killed by the savage Hottentots of Southern Africa while on his return to Portugal.

The illustrious Dom Alfonso Albuquerque, the next Portuguese viceroy in the East, notwithstanding the hostility of the Mohammedan rulers of India, obtained a grant of ground from one of the Hindoo princes, and founded a strong fort at Cochin in 1503, where the Portuguese had established factories; and this stronghold became the cradle of the great commercial empire of the Portuguese, whose power was felt from China to the Red Sea. The Mohammedans, who had hitherto engrossed the entire commerce of India, formed a league to expel the Portuguese, and were encouraged therein by the Venetians, who purchased Indian spices and other goods from the Arabs, with which they supplied the principal markets of Europe; but this enterprise was defeated.

In 1510 Albuquerque conquered the city of Goa, on the western coast of India, which afterwards became the capital of the Portuguese empire in the East, and was erected into an archbishopric by the Pope. Goa, which still belongs to the Portuguese, displays in its stately churches, warehouses and deserted dwellings a vestige of that magnificence which acquired for it the title of "Goa the Golden." The reduction of Goa was the first instance of territorial acquisition in India by European powers—a system strongly deprecated by Vasco da Gama, and which cannot be defended on any principles of national justice, but which Albuquerque declared absolutely necessary for Portugal to command the trade of the East.

Albuquerque also subdued the city of Malacca, the emporium of the trade of Farther India. He also reduced the isle of Ormuz, in the Persian Gulf, to subjection; and when the King of Persia, to whom the isle belonged, demanded tribute

from the Portuguese viceroy, Albuquerque pointing to his cannon and balls, replied: "There is the coin with which the King of Portugal pays tribute." Albuquerque caused the name of King Manuel the Great to be feared and respected throughout the East; but the illustrious viceroy was only rewarded with his sovereign's ingratitude, and died of grief because of this treatment.

During the next ten years the Portuguese established colonies and factories on the island of Ceylon and on the Coromandel coast of Hindoostan, and subjected the spice-bearing Molucca and Sunda Islands to tribute. In 1517 the Portuguese were granted a trading-station at Macao, in China, which remained in their possession until 1846, when it was opened to all nations. They also obtained a free trade with the Empire of Japan.

All the islands in the Persian Gulf acknowledged the dominion of the Portuguese. Some of the Arabian princes became their tributaries, while others became their allies; and throughout the entire Arabian peninsula none dared to show them any hostility. In the Red Sea they were the only power that commanded any respect, and they also had considerable influence over the Negus of Abyssinia and the other sovereigns of Eastern Africa.

The most remarkable of the Portuguese settlements was the isle of Ormuz, which, although a salt and barren rock in the Persian Gulf, was rendered the most flourishing commercial mart in the East, on account of its commodious situation. Its roadsteads were frequented by shipping from all parts of the East Indies, from the coasts of Africa, Egypt and Arabia; and it possessed an extensive caravan trade with Central Asia through the opposite ports of Persia. The semi-annual fairs held at Ormuz transformed this salt and barren rock into almost the fabled splendor and luxury of an Oriental palace. The wealth, the splendor, and the concourse of traders at Ormuz during its flourishing condition furnished a striking example of the almost omnipotent power of commerce.

During the semi-annual fairs, which lasted from January to March, and from the end of August to the beginning of November, there was, besides the display of luxury and magnificence, an almost unparalleled activity. The salt dust of the streets was concealed and kept down by neat mats and rich carpets. Canvas-awnings were extended from the roofs of the houses to exclude the scorching rays of the sun. The rooms next to the street were opened like shops, adorned with Indian cabinets and piles of porcelain, intermixed with odoriferous dwarf trees and shrubs, set in gilded vases, elegantly adorned with figures. At the corners of all the streets stood camels laden with water-skins; while the richest wines of Persia, the most costly perfumes and the choicest delicacies of Asia, were poured forth in lavish profusion.

The efforts of Albuquerque's successors were directed chiefly to the maintenance of his acquisitions and to checking the power of the Turks, who, after conquering Egypt and Syria in 1517, made strenuous efforts to establish themselves on the Malabar coast of India.

Thus, early in the sixteenth century, the Portuguese had established a colonial and commercial empire which embraced the western, southern and eastern coasts of Africa, from Guinea to the Red Sea, and which extended along the shores of Southern and Eastern Asia from the Red Sea to China; although throughout this vast extent of territory they had little more than a chain of factories and forts. Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, became the seat of the world's commerce; but the nobler emotions in the hearts of the Portuguese were stifled by avarice and selfishness.

On the union of Portugal with Spain in 1580 the Portuguese East India possessions also came into the possession of the Spaniards; but when Spanish tyranny and cruelty caused the Dutch to revolt, the Dutch extended their commerce to the East Indies, and at the close of the sixteenth century they had possession of the once-flourishing Portuguese colonial empire. In 1622 Or-

muz was wrested from the Portuguese by the English and the Persians. The glory and splendor of that famous emporium soon departed, and it relapsed into its original condition of a barren and desolate rock, so that not a vestige of its former grandeur remains.

After Pedro Alvarez Cabral, while on his voyage to India to continue the discoveries of Vasco da Gama, had accidentally discovered the coast of Brazil by being driven westward by adverse winds, April 22, 1500, he anchored in the large and excellent harbor of Porto Seguro, April 25, 1500, and took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign, King Manuel the Great of Portugal; after which he resumed his voyage to the East Indies, having sent a vessel back to Portugal with the news of his discovery.

Upon receiving intelligence of Cabral's discovery, the King of Portugal sent an expedition under Amerigo Vespucci to visit and explore the new country. Upon his return to Europe, Amerigo Vespucci published an account of the country, together with a map. He brought back a cargo of dyewoods, of which he said that whole forests were to be found in Brazil; and an active and profitable trade in these woods at once sprang up. Other nations commenced to take part in this traffic, and the King of Portugal determined to put a stop to this intrusion.

Accordingly, in 1531, King John III. caused a number of Portuguese colonies to be planted on the coast of Brazil. These settlements were called *Capitanias*, and were founded by Portuguese nobles, to whom the King of Portugal granted absolute powers over their settlements on the sole condition that they should bear the expense of colonization. This system worked admirably for several years, but at length it caused so much trouble that the Portuguese government determined to establish a permanent colonial system directly dependent on the Portuguese crown.

In 1549 a Governor-General was appointed for Brazil, and was made the direct representative of the King of Portugal, being vested with absolute jurisdiction in civil and criminal matters. The first Governor-General of Brazil was Thomé de Souza, and the success of the new system was due to his wisdom and good government. He founded the town of Sao Salvador da Bahia, and made it the capital of Brazil. A colony of French Protestants settled on an island in the bay of Rio de Janeiro in 1555, but were expelled ten years later. The Portuguese founded Rio de Janeiro in 1567.

The forcible annexation of Portugal to Spain in 1580 made Brazil a Spanish dependency for the time, and Brazil suffered much from the attacks of Dutch, French and English fleets; but after Portugal had regained her independence in 1640 she recovered Brazil from the Dutch, who had in the meantime occupied the country, and Brazil was made a principality for the heir-apparent of the Portuguese crown.

SECTION IV.—RISE OF THE EUROPEAN STATES-SYSTEM.

E NOW return to resume the narrative of European history, which we left off at the close of the Middle Ages and the beginning of the modern era. The common interests of the several states of Europe had been vastly multiplied by the progress of civilization. Certain events were perceived to affect all European nations alike, particularly the progress of the Ottoman Turks and the rapid growth of opinions in every European country contrary to the doctrines of the established Church. The new art of printing increased the interchange of ideas, and the founding of European colonies in America and Asia led to more intimate commercial relations between the European states. All these causes

Duke—Page—Nobleman (14th Century).

Nobleman—English Duchess (14th Century).

French Lady and Gentleman (middle 14th Century).

Family of German Knight.

THE 14TH CENTURY.

tended to develop the *European States-System*—a league of independent powers widely different in their respective constitutions, but whose relations are determined and maintained by diplomacy or by the science of international law.

The preservation of the *Balance of Power*—the independence of all the European states by preventing any one of them from acquiring such a preponderance that would menace the general security—became the chief object, and demanded from every European government a vigilant attention to the affairs of other nations, thus giving rise to many alliances and counter-alliances and much diplomatic activity. States of inferior rank—like Savoy, Lorraine and the Swiss Republic—were protected by their more powerful neighbors as convenient smaller weights in the balance.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, Spain, under Ferdinand and Isabella, was the most powerful monarchy in Europe; while France, under Louis XII., the first of the Orleans branch of the Valois dynasty, was also a powerful monarchy; and England, under Henry VII., the first of the Tudor dynasty, had also risen into importance; but the Empire existed only in theory, the Emperor Maximilian I. being a powerful prince only as the head of the House of Hapsburg, and Archduke of Austria, Count of the Tyrol, Duke of Styria and Carinthia, and Regent of the Netherlands. In Italy the republics of Venice, Genoa and Florence were preëminent; while the Duchy of Milan and the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily were contested between the French and the Spaniards. Scotland and the Scandinavian kingdoms occupied a secondary place; Poland was a half-barbarous kingdom on the eastern frontiers of European civilization; Hungary was a bulwark against the Ottoman Turks, whose continuous progress, under warlike Sultans, alarmed all Christendom; and Russia ranked more as an Asiatic power than a European one.

During the last years of the fifteenth century King Charles VIII. of France undertook to enforce the claim to Naples which he inherited through his father from Charles of Maine. He wasted in tournaments and festivities the entire sum provided for the prosecution of his grand schemes of conquest, and he was only enabled to proceed by borrowing fifty thousand crowns from a Milanese merchant. After entering Italy he borrowed and pawned the jewels of the Duchess of Savoy and the Marchioness of Montferrat, for the prosecution of his enterprise.

Ludovico Sforza, the uncle of the reigning Duke of Milan, had invited the French king into Italy for the purpose of obtaining his protection in the usurpation of the duchy. This prince was one of the most unscrupulous plotters of the age, and he was suspected of having poisoned his nephew, who died about that time.

Florence was the old ally of France; but Piero de Medici, who was then the ruler of that republic, was bound by a treaty to King Alfonso II. of Naples. A tumult which arose against Piero de Medici drove him to the opposite extreme of offering to put the King of France in possession of all the fortresses of Tuscany and to furnish him with a loan of two hundred thousand florins. The Florentines were so enraged at this humiliating subserviency of their ruler that they drove the Medici into exile, confiscated their goods and set a price on their heads.

The Dominican monk and reformer Savonarola, who had foretold the coming of the French as ministers of divine vengeance for Italian corruptions—especially the notorious wickedness of Pope Alexander VI. and his family, the Borgias—now came to the head of affairs in Florence. He appeared before Charles VIII. at Lucca, and predicted for him an earthly victory and a heavenly glory on condition that he protected the liberties of Florence. The French king took up his residence in Florence, but when he proposed to tax the city and recall the Medici the Florentines rose en masse in defense of their rights and drove him from the city.

Charles VIII. entered Rome with an army of fifty thousand men and a train of artillery. The personal wickedness of Pope Alexander VI. was intensified in the opinion of his contemporaries by his unnatural alliance with Sultan Bajazet II. of Turkey. Zizim, the Sultan's younger brother and hated rival, who had sought refuge with the Knights of St. John at Rhodes, was sent to France for greater security in 1483, and remained in various fortresses belonging to the order for several years; while Bajazet II. paid a liberal annual allowance for his maintenance, in order to keep him out of the way. The unfortunate Zizim was afterward committed to the Pope's keeping, and Alexander VI. made use of so valuable a prize in his negotiations with the Sultan.

It was well known that the King of France designed to conquer the Turks and to restore the Eastern Empire, the title to which he had purchased from Andrew Palæologus, nephew of the last reigning Greek Emperor. Pope Alexander VI. informed the Sultan that the French king was scheming to acquire possession of Zizim to further his plans against the Ottoman Empire. Bajazet II. then offered three hundred thousand ducats for the murder of his brother; and, as Zizim died within a few months, it was generally believed that his death was caused by a slow poison administered by the Pope's order.

As soon as the French army entered the Kingdom of Naples the Neapolitans rose in revolt against their king, Alfonso II., a cruel and detested tyrant. Seized with remorse and terror, Alfonso II. abdicated in favor of his son Ferdinand II.; but the new king's virtues were unable to retrieve his family's desperate fortunes. His infantry threw down their arms at the approach of the French; while one of his principal officers betrayed Capua to King Charles VIII., and the city of Naples rose in revolt. Ferdinand II. burned or sunk most of his fleet, placed his available troops in the fortresses near the city of Naples, and fled to Sicily with fifteen ships. The King of France entered the city of Naples the next day amid the acclamations of the people. The Neapolitan fortresses soon surrendered, and in the course of several weeks the entire Kingdom of Naples had come into the possession of Charles VIII. almost without a blow.

The triumphant French king treated the Neapolitans as a conquered people. Instead of rewarding their nobles and generals, whose influence had mainly secured his triumph, he confiscated their hereditary lands and offices to grant them to his own idle followers.

The first great coalition known in European history was now formed against Charles VIII. by the arts of his former ally, Ludovico Sforza, who had gained all that he had hoped for by the French invasion of Italy, and who was alarmed by the nearness of the Duke of Orleans, the rightful heir of the Visconti to the Duchy of Milan. In March, 1495, a treaty of alliance was signed at Venice by the envoys of Pope Alexander VI., the Emperior Maximilian I., King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain, the Venetian Republic, and the Duke of Milan. A Spanish army was soon landed in Sicily, and a Venetian fleet appeared on the coast of Apulia.

Charles VIII. made a magnificent entry into Naples, clothed in the robes of an Eastern Emperor, carrying a globe in one hand and a scepter in the other. In the following week he fled from that city, leaving its treasury without money and its fortresses without food or ammunition, and took with him in his march northward an immense baggage-train loaded with treasure. He was encountered by an army of the allies four times as numerous as his own, at Fornovo, in Lombardy, in July, 1495, and was victorious. The French army was saved from defeat and ruin by their rich plunder, which diverted the attention of the enemy, whose disorderly ranks were easily put to flight. Charles VIII. then concluded a new treaty with Ludovico Sforza, who acknowledged himself a vassal of the French king for Genoa, and promised to take no part in the movement of the allies against France.

The French dominion in Naples was short-lived. King Ferdinand of Spain sent an army to assist King Ferdinand II. of Naples, who landed at Reggio within a week after the French king's retreat from Naples. His forces were defeated at Seminara; but the people of the city of Naples, weary of the French, rose in revolt against them and welcomed their lawful sovereign with joyful acclamations. The entire Southern coast of Naples declared for Ferdinand II.

The French king's cousin and viceroy, the Duke of Montpensier, made some efforts to continue hostilities; but, as he received no assistance from France, he was obliged to conclude a treaty in which the French obtained little more than permission to return home. While waiting for transports a pestilence broke out, in which the viceroy and many of his troops perished. The Constable d'Aubigny was defeated in Calabria about the same time, by Gonsalvo de Cordova, the *Great Captain*, so called because of his career of uninterrupted victories. Ferdinand II. died in 1496, and was succeeded by his uncle Don Frederick, a prince of great talents and popular disposition, who soon wiped out every remaining vestige of French domination.

The principal result of the wild expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy was the fatal desire for distant conquests which it excited in the sovereigns and people who had become involved in his wars; and unfortunate Italy, weakened by her own dissensions, suffered for many years from the display of her wealth and helplessness. To the refined and enervated Italians the invasion of the French seemed like a new inroad of Northern barbarians; as the carnage wrought by the well-served artillery of Charles VIII. presented a destructive contrast to the Italian battles of the time, in which "the worst that a soldier had to fear was the loss of his horse or the expense of his ransom."

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the manufacture of defensive armor so far excelled that of destructive weapons that war became almost as safe as the peaceful contests of the chess-board. War was carried on in Italy mainly by mercenary companies of adventurers, who were hired out by their captains to any prince or city that offered the most pay or plunder; and it was the evident policy of the leaders to keep their forces undiminished, as the material for subsequent bargains. Macchiavelli mentions a decisive battle in which no man suffered any injury, and another in which one was killed by accidentally falling from his horse and being smothered in the mud.

Several marriages negotiated by Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain about this time had a controlling influence upon future history. The Princess Margaret, daughter of the Emperor Maximilian I. and the discarded bride of Charles VIII. of France, was married to John, Prince of Asturias, the eldest son of the King and Queen of Spain; while her brother Philip, the heir to the Netherlands, married Joanna, the second daughter of the same king and queen. The Princess Isabella, the eldest daughter of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, was espoused to King Manuel the Great of Portugal; and the Princess Catharine, the youngest daughter of the Spanish sovereigns, was betrothed to Prince Henry, the heir to the English crown, afterward King Henry VIII. By the premature deaths of the Infant of Spain, the Queen of Portugal and her only son, the whole Spanish inheritance fell to Charles, the eldest son of Philip and Joanna, who ranks as the great central figure in the history of the first half of the sixteenth century.

The crimes and vices of the Borgia family gave resolute energy to the preaching of Savonarola, who earnestly called upon the European sovereigns to convene a council of the Church to depose Pope Alexander VI. The Pope replied by excommunicating the "bold prophet of Florence" and all the members of his government. The fanaticism of the *Piagnoni*, or Weepers, who followed Savonarola, had strengthened two other parties in Florence; and Pope Alexan-

der VI. took advantage of the dissensions of these parties to cause his bold antagonist to be put to death. Savonarola and two of his disciples were burned to death in the market-place of Florence, May 23, 1498.

But Pope Alexander VI. did not escape the natural result of his crimes. His eldest son, the Duke of Gandia, had already been murdered by Cæsar Borgia, his own brother, who was Cardinal of Valencia. For several days even the Pope was struck with remorse. He openly confessed his sins and promised to reform, but he soon plunged more deeply than ever into violent and degrading courses. He pardoned the murderer, and even released him from his vows as a prelate for the purpose of making him a great secular prince.

Charles VIII. of France was suddenly hurried to his grave while preparing for another invasion of Italy, A. D. 1498. Louis XII., the next King of France, proceeded to enforce his hereditary claim on Milan; and in 1499 a French army of twenty-three thousand men was sent into Italy under three experienced commanders. Venice was in alliance with the King of France. The success of this expedition was as sudden as that of Charles VIII. against Naples had been. The Milanese were disaffected toward their duke, who was in such fear of popular violence that he fled into the Tyrol to solicit the assistance of the Emperor Maximilian I. While the duke was absent from Milan the Milanese declared for the French, and their example was followed by all Lombardy, which was annexed to the French dominions without a battle having been fought.

Louis XII. crossed the Alps into Italy and entered Milan in triumph. He pleased the Lombards with fair promises of a mild, paternal government; but no sooner had he returned to France than the extortions of Trivulzio, his lieutenant, and the rudeness of his soldiery, exasperated the Milanese and revived the party of the exiled duke. Ludovico Sforza now approached with an army he had raised in Switzerland, and the French retreated to Mortara.

In April, 1500, the two armies encountered each other near Novara; but the infantry on both sides was Swiss—that in the French army obtained by treaty with the Swiss government, and that in Sforza's force enlisted man by man. Sforza's recruits had received orders from the Swiss Diet not to fight their countrymen in the French army; and as soon as the battle of Novara began they retreated into the town, where they commenced a secret agreement with the French, promising to desert the Duke of Milan and to return to their homes, on condition of a safe-conduct, which was readily granted.

One private soldier betrayed Sforza as he was trying to pass out of the ranks of his perfidious Swiss in the disguise of a monk. He was conveyed a captive to France, and passed the remainder of his life in a dungeon. In spite of the perfidious crimes which condemn him, Ludovico Sforza had been a wise and beneficent sovereign in many respects. The great plain of Lombardy to this day is indebted for much of its productiveness to the canal by which he completed its system of irrigation. Leonardo da Vinci, the greatest artist of the time, selected Sforza for his patron and friend, and contributed much to the splendor of the Milanese court by his genius as a painter, sculptor and poet.

By a counter-revolution the King of France now again came into possession of the Milanese duchy, and opened the way for his march upon Naples. King Ferdinand of Spain—the cousin and natural ally of King Frederick of Naples—had secretly turned against him, and entered into a treaty with Louis XII. to divide the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily between them. Under the pretense of a crusade against the Turks, which was duly proclaimed by the infamous Pope Alexander VI., Ferdinand of Spain had a fleet and an army ready in the ports of Sicily before the French had arrived. The Spanish king kept possession of several towns and fortresses which his cousin had entrusted to him as a friend and ally.

When Frederick became aware of the disgraceful plot he abandoned Naples and Sicily rather than to subject his people to a useless war, and surrendered himself to Stuart d'Aubigny, who conveyed him a captive to France. The military renown of Gonsalvo de Cordova, the Great Captain, is sullied by his obedience to a faithless monarch. By a false oath, that great general obtained possession of King Frederick's son and heir, and sent him a prisoner to Spain. Thus ended the Neapolitan branch of the House of Aragon, which had reigned over Naples and Sicily sixty-five years.

The perfidious conquerors of Naples and Sicily qurrelled about the division of the spoils. The French gradually became masters of the entire kingdom, excepting Barletta and several towns on the south-western coast; but the Spaniards again came into possession by a new fraud. The Archduke Philip, on returning from Spain to the Netherlands, was commissioned to conclude a treaty with Louis XII. of France at Lyons. By that treaty it was agreed that the Kings of France and Spain should confer the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily upon two children, Charles of Austria and Claude of France, who were to be married when they became of age.

In the meantime Philip was to be regent for his infant son and to rule at Naples, jointly with a commissioner appointed by the King of France. Relying on this treaty, Louis XII. had ordered his commanders in Italy to suspend hostilities; but Ferdinand of Spain had resolved not to be bound by the treaty, and sent secret orders to his Great Captain, who by a sudden and rapid movement surprised the French in their inaction. By their victories in the two decisive battles of Seminara and Cerignola, the Spaniards secured possession of the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily. The city of Naples and most of the other towns of the kingdom opened their gates to Gonsalvo de Cordova, and the last Frenchman had retired from the Neapolitan kingdom within three months.

Taking advantage of the French invasion of Italy, the Borgias conquered many small sovereignties in Central Italy by force or fraud, and they intended to form a new and powerful "Kingdom of Romagna" from these conquered sovereignties. But Pope Alexander VI. was destined to perish by his own wicked devices. Most of the forty-three cardinals whom he appointed bought their dignities with vast sums of gold; but after they had become enriched by employments in the Church the wicked Pope caused many of them to be poisoned, so that the papal coffers might again be replenished by the confiscation of their estates and the sale of their high offices.

The Pope designed such a fate for the Cardinal of Corneto, whom he invited with Cæsar Borgia, the Pope's son, to the Belvedere, a favorite retreat of the Pope near the Vatican. The Pope had instructed one of his servants to serve the visiting cardinal with poisoned wine. The bottles were interchanged by mistake, and Pope Alexander VI. and his son partook of the poisoned wine, as well as their unsuspecting victim. The more vigorous constitutions of Cæsar Borgia and the Cardinal of Corneto conquered the violent illness with which the poisoned wine attacked them; but the aged Pope, then in his seventy-third year, died within a week, A. D. 1503.

The Cardinal d'Amboise, the famous prime minister of Louis XII. of France, now proved the worthlessness of the friendship purchased with worldly favors. While marching to Naples, a French army halted near Rome, to influence the election of a new Pope; but, as the Cardinal d'Amboise perceived that the election would nevertheless be against him, he gave the votes of his party to the Cardinal of Siena, who thus became Pope Pius III. The new Pope was a good old man, but his election was mainly owing to a mortal disease with which he was already prostrated, and which terminated fatally in less than a month, A. D. 1503. He had during his brief pontificate planned a general council for the reform of the Church.

The next papal election was still more fatal to the ambition of Cardinal d' Amboise. The votes of the conclave were given to Cardinal Julian della Rovera, an active and powerful man, who thus became Pope Julius II. This warlike pontiff's reign was absorbed by two objects—the expulsion of the French from Italy, and the recovery of the alienated estates of the Church. His attention failed to be attracted by the spiritual dangers which menaced the papal supremacy more and more. He soon deprived Cæsar Borgia of his ill-gotten possessions, and immured him in the same tower in Rome where he had incarcerated many prisoners. When Borgia was released he availed himself of the safe-conduct given him by Gonsalvo de Cordova, and proceeded to Naples, where he was betrayed by that great Spanish general to King Ferdinand, who confined him in a Spanish prison for three years. He made his escape therefrom, and perished in one of the civil wars of Navarre.

Indignant at the ill-faith of King Ferdinand of Spain and his Great Captain, Louis XII. of France hastily fitted out three expeditions—one against Naples and two against Spain. The expedition against Naples was delayed by the ambitious designs of Cardinal d' Amboise, until all its efforts were rendered futile by the lateness of the season. The valley of Garigliano had been converted into a noisome swamp by heavy rains. Hundreds of French soldiers died of malaria; but the Spanish army under Gonsalvo de Cordova, better posted and more thoroughly fed and equipped, was able to profit by the misfortunes of the French. The battle of Garigliano, December 29, 1503, in which the French were utterly routed, completed the conquest of Naples by the Spaniards. The two French expeditions against Spain met with no better success, and the deposed and captive King Frederick of Naples and Sicily negotiated a treaty of peace between France and Spain.

The good Queen Isabella of Spain died in 1504, overwhelmed with grief for the loss of her family, and especially for the insanity of her daughter Joanna, the wife of Philip of Austria. King Ferdinand became Regent of Castile, in his daughter's absence, though he caused Philip and Joanna to be proclaimed sovereigns of Castile. Encouraged by a party among the Castilian nobles opposed to Ferdinand, Philip wrote a discourteous letter to his father-in-law, demanding that he retire into his own kingdom of Aragon. Ferdinand replied by inviting Philip to Spain; but he sought revenge by entering into a close alliance with Louis XII. of France, and marrying Germaine de Foix, the French king's niece, who received the French claims upon Naples as her dowry.

Philip and Joanna sailed for Spain early in 1506; but their Netherland fleet was dispersed by a storm, and they were obliged to take refuge in an English port. Henry VII. of England took advantage of their misfortune to extort a commercial treaty from Philip, favoring England at the expense of the Netherlands, and promising the close alliance of their families by two marriages, which, however, never occurred.

After being detained in England several months Philip and Joanna were allowed to proceed to Spain, where they received the allegiance of the Castilian Cortes. Ferdinand resigned all authority in Castile, retaining only the West Indian revenues and the grand-masterships of the three military orders, which Isabella's will secured to him, and sailed with his new queen for Italy. Before he arrived at Naples he was informed of Philip's sudden death. But Ferdinand was willing to have his absence regretted by the ungrateful Spaniards, who were overwhelmed with confusion and alarm by the unexpected event. Ferdinand proceeded to regulate the affairs of his Neapolitan kingdom at leisure, and did not return to Spain until the summer of 1507.

The unfortunate Joanna's mental malady was aggravated by excessive grief for her husband's sudden death. She submitted herself entirely to her father's control, and never consented to take any part in public affairs during the remaining forty-seven years of her life. Her son Charles remained

in the Netherlands, under the guardianship of his paternal grandfather, the German Emperor Maximilian I. Maximilian's daughter Margaret, who was then a widow for the second time, was appointed regent for the Netherlands. Her skillful diplomacy led to the *League of Cambray*, which she negotiated with the Cardinal d' Amboise, the great French prime minister, and which was signed in the cathedral of Cambray, December 10, 1508; thus uniting King Ferdinand of Spain, King Louis XII. of France, the Emperor Maximilian I. and Pope Julius II. in a coalition against the Venetian Republic.

The wealth and power of Venice, which had recently been confirmed by the capture of several Greek islands from the Ottoman Turks, excited the fears and the jealousy of her neighbors. Louis XII. of France, as Duke of Milan, desired to reclaim several Lombard towns which had been secured to Venice by treaty during his wars with Ludovico Sforza. Pope Julius II. insisted upon the grants of Pepin the Little and Charlemagne, securing Rimini, Faenza and some other towns to the dominion of St. Peter.

Ferdinand of Spain desired the possession of Brindisi and other maritime cities which his cousin and predecessor, King Frederick of Naples, had pledged to Venice as security for the expenses of the Venetian Republic in his cause. Padua, Vicenza and Verona were claimed as belonging to the Germano-Roman Empire by ancient right. Roveredo, Treviso and Friuli were claimed as belonging to the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Duke of Savoy, as lineal descendant of Guy of Lusignan, the King of Jerusalem before the Third Crusade, claimed the isle of Cyprus, which had been bequeathed to Venice by Catharine Cornaro, the widow of the last reigning sovereign of the island. The King of Hungary desired to reannex the lands which Venice had conquered in Dalmatia and Slavonia.

Florence was induced to join the League of Cambray by an act of the basest perfidy on the part of Kings Ferdinand of Spain and Louis XII. of France. Ever since the expedition of Charles VIII. of France into Italy, Pisa, which had previously been the unwilling subject of Florence, had been bravely struggling for independence. Maximilian I., as Emperor, and therefore as nominal sovereign of Italy, had been implored to espouse the cause of Pisa; but his movements were delayed so long that "succor for Pisa" had become a proverb and a by-word in Germany.

The Kings of France and Spain now agreed to put a garrison in Pisa, which would be readily received as friendly, but which should be instructed to open the gates of the city to the Florentine army at an appointed time. Louis XII. was to receive one hundred thousand ducats, and Ferdinand fifty thousand, for this act of royal treachery. The troops of Florence entered the half-starved city of Pisa, June 8, 1509, and, by a liberal distribution of food, exhibited greater generosity than their allies.

The League of Cambray was the first great European coalition since the Crusades; and it laid the foundation of public law by raising the question whether ancient and hereditary right, the faith of treaties, or general considerations of the common good shall have precedence in controlling the affairs of nations. The text of the treaty is strongly tinged with the hypocrisy of the time; as it declares the principal object of the alliance to be a war against the Ottoman Turks, and that, as a preliminary to such a war, it was necessary to put an end to the rapine, the losses and the injuries caused by the insatiable cupidity and the thirst for domination which were characteristic of the Venetian Republic. Venice was really the strongest barrier of Europe against the Turks, and was best able by her maritime power to oppose them in the seat of their dominion.

Pope Julius II. began hostilities by a decree of excommunication against the Venetians, expressed in the bitterest terms of reproach. Louis XII. was the first to take the field; and, by a victory which he won over the Venetians at Agnadello in 1509, he

gained more than had been assigned to him by the Treaty of Cambray, as he was able to send the keys of Verona, Vicenza and Padua to the Emperor Maximilian I.

Reduced to desperate straits by the number and strength of their enemies, the Venetians adopted the masterly plan of freeing all their Italian dependencies, thus throwing upon the subject cities the burden of their own defense, and narrowing the frontiers of the Venetian Republic to the islands at the head of the Adriatic which had been the Republic's original territories. They also surrendered to Ferdinand of Spain the towns which he had demanded in Apulia, and made dutiful professions of submission to the Emperor and the Pope.

The barbarities which the French and the Germans committed aroused the peasantry of all North-eastern Italy to espouse the cause of Venice. A Venetian force retook and garrisoned Padua. Maximilian I. besieged that town with an army of forty thousand men, but was finally forced to retire and to disband his army, after which the Venetians recovered many cities.

Pope Julius II. had now gained all that he desired for the territories of the Church, and he turned his attention to the expulsion of the French from Italy. He relieved Venice from the interdict, and concluded an alliance with the Swiss Republic, which had quarreled with the King of France, and which now agreed to furnish more than six thousand of their best halberdiers to the Pope's service.

The Pope propitiated the King of Spain by the feudal investiture of the Kingdom of Naples, and commuted the tribute formerly received from that realm into an annual offering of a white horse and an aid of three hundred lances in case of an actual invasion of the States of the Church. The Duke of Ferrara had incurred the Pope's wrath by yielding in everything to the counsels of the King of France, and the ambassadors of France and Ferrara were at once dismissed from the papal court.

The allied French and German armies were still prosecuting hostilities in Northern Italy in the most cruel manner. Vicenza had speedily returned to its alliance with Venice after the repulse of the Emperor Maximilian's army at Padua, and was now exposed to the vengeance of the Germans. All its inhabitants who were able to do so removed their families and their property to Padua, but the remainder took refuge with the peasantry in a vast cavern in the mountains near the city. The French soldiery filled the entrance to the cave with light wood, to which they set fire, thus smothering all who were in the cave, six thousand in number.

Just when the two fortified towns of Porto Legnano and Monselice had yielded to the allied French and German armies, the scale was turned against the Germans by the Pope's declaration of war against the Duke of Ferrara, and by a simultaneous attack by his Roman and Swiss forces upon Genoa and Milan. The Venetians promptly took advantage of the changed situation, and recovered Vicenza and many other towns; but the papal officers failed to excite a revolt in Genoa against the French; and the Swiss who had entered the plain of Lombardy found themselves entrapped among the many rivers and harassed by the movements of their foes, and were thus obliged to retreat hastily to their own country.

After the death of the Cardinal d'Amboise the French clergy assembled at Lyons and called upon Pope Julius II. to lay down weapons so inconsistent with his spiritual dignity and to submit his complaints to a general council of the Church. A new treaty signed at Blois between King Louis XII. of France and the Emperor Maximilian I. provided for the sending of French troops into the field.

Pope Julius II. was enraged by these movements of his enemies, and pushed his warlike operations with increased vigor. He was almost taken prisoner by the French at Bologna, while prostrated by a dangerous illness; but he contrived to occupy their general by negotiations until a Venetian army, including a detachment of Turkish cavalry,

arrived. The fiery old pontiff laid siege to the fortresses of Concordia and Mirandola amid the snows of a most rigorous winter. Encased in armor, his white hair covered by a steel helmet, he appeared on horseback among his troops, sharing all their hardships and perils, and encouraging them with promises of rich plunder. When the fortress finally surrendered, he entered by a ladder at the breach which his guns had effected, being too impatient to wait for the opening of the gates.

In a congress which the Emperor Maximilian I. had opened at Bologna the warlike Pope made an unsuccessful effort to detach the Emperor from his alliance with the King of France, and the haughty demeanor of the imperial secretary rendered peace impossible. Being seized with a panic the Pople fled from Bologna ; and the French pursued his army, and captured its great standard, twenty-six cannon and an enormous quantity of baggage. The Bolognese received back the Bentivoglios, their former masters, and destroyed the bronze statue of Pope Julius II., which was regarded as one of Michael Angelo's greatest works.

A new coalition, called the *Holy League*, was now formed against the French by Pope Julius II., King Ferdinand of Spain, and the Venetian Republic; while King Henry VIII. of England and the Emperor Maximilian I. were secret parties to the alliance, but did not openly avow their designs until the interests of each could be best secured. The King of England was promised the Duchy of Guienne, along with the title of "Most Christian King," which were to be taken from the King of France. The Emperor Maximilian's romantic mind was now occupied with an unusually visionary scheme. The Pope's illness had inspired the Emperor with the idea of taking holy orders and becoming the successor of Julius II. in the Chair of St. Peter, assuming in advance the title of Pontifex Maximus, which the Popes had inherited from the Cæsars.

Pope Julius II. united in his person the genius of a military commander with the ambition of a temporal sovereign ; while Louis XII. of France was holding ecclesiastical councils, and the Emperor Maximilian I. in his old age commenced sighing for the dignity of a Pope and the life of a saint. Louis XII., the object of the jealousy of Julius II., was the only one who scrupled to fight against the Pope, and voluntarily relinquished advantages which he had acquired, rather than to do injury to Christ's Vicar on earth ; while Henry VIII. of England, who afterward destroyed the papal supremacy in his own realm, was on this occasion won to the Pope's side by the artful flatteries of Julius II.

The French armies in Italy were under the command of Gaston de Foix, nephew of Louis XII. and brother-in-law of Ferdinand of Spain—a young nobleman of remarkable talents, whose short and brilliant career astonished Europe and acquired for him the title of the *Thunderbolt of Italy*. By a swift and determined movement he threw his army into Bologna, which the allies were then besieging. The forces of the Holy League at once fled; and Gaston de Foix strongly guarded Bologna and then rapidly marched into Lombardy, where he ascertained that two cities had driven away their French garrisons or taken them captive. He defeated the Venetians near Isola della Scala before dawn by the light which the stars reflected from the snow. He took Brescia by storm and gave the city up to plunder and massacre. Bergamo escaped a similar fate by prompt submission and the payment of a ransom.

The King of France now ordered his victorious commander to fight one decisive battle, and, if victorious, to march upon Rome, depose Pope Julius II. and dictate terms of peace. In executing this plan, Gaston de Foix marched toward Ravenna, driving the allied army before him. The great battle of Ravenna, which was fought April 11, 1512, has been described as "one of those tremendous days into which human folly and wickedness compress the whole devastation of a famine or a plague."

The French general, who claimed the Kingdom of Navarre, and who considered the King of Spain his personal enemy and rival, bared his left arm so that he might bathe it in Spanish blood. The artillery of the Duke of Ferrara, from one end of the crescent-shaped line of the French army, kept up a destructive cross-fire, mowing down entire ranks of the Spanish and papal troops. The French were victorious in the cavalry charge which followed; but the serried ranks of the Swiss, bristling with the points of their long lances, like a Macedonian phalanx, had to sustain a harder struggle with the short swords and the Roman drill of the Spanish infantry. The Swiss columns were only rescued from destruction by the French cavalry, led by the gallant Gaston de Foix himself, who won the victory by the sacrifice of his life. On receiving the fatal tidings, Louis XII. exclaimed: "Would to God that I had lost all Italy, and that Gaston were safe!"

In the midst of the panic of the allies all Romagna fell into the power of the victorious French. Rome trembled, and the iron-hearted Pope Julius II. was ready to accept the French king's conditions of peace. But in a few weeks the entire situation was changed. The French soldiery were dispirited by the death of their gallant commander. The German lancers were withdrawn, and the Duke of Ferrara negotiated a separate peace with the Pope. The Council which convened at Rome three weeks after the battle of Ravenna opposed the terms of peace offered by France. Pope Julius II., the Emperor Maximilian I. and the Swiss Republic united in making Maximilian Sforza, Ludovico's son, Duke of Milan. The French forces, under La Palisse, fled before the allies to Pavia, and thence, after a sanguinary battle, into their own country. At the close of June, 1512, only three towns and three fortresses in Italy remained in the French king's possession.

But, after the expulsion of the French from Italy, the Holy League fell to pieces from its own dissensions. Pope Julius II., who was resolved upon enlarging the States of the Church to their former limits, wrested the cities of Parma and Piacenza from the new Duke of Milan, and sent his nephew to occupy the Duchy of Ferrara, while he kept the now pardoned and reconciled Alfonso a prisoner at Rome. The Emperor Maximilian I. sent a German army to prey upon the territories of his new allies, the Venetians; while the Swiss kept possession of the three districts of the Valtelline, Locarno and Chiavenna, and levied forced contributions upon the Milanese and deposed their new duke, Maximilian Sforza.

The late allies agreed upon the necessity of chastising Florence for her neutrality during their wars, by bestowing power in the Florentine Republic upon the party which was able to pay the highest price. Cardinal John de Medici had been taken prisoner in the battle of Ravenna, but he escaped in the confusion during the French retreat from Milan. He was now sent with a Spanish army to revolutionize Florence and to restore the dominion of his family. This force took the suburban village of Prato and subjected it to a brutal massacre and pillage.

The Florentine government, in utter dismay, deposed its chief magistrate, and accepted all the terms of the allies, including the payment of a vast sum of money to the Emperor Maximilian I. and King Ferdinand of Spain, and the restoration of the Medici as private citizens only. Julian de Medici, the youngest son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, entered Florence, followed soon afterward by his brother, the cardinal, who, in a packed assembly of the citizens, procured a thorough reversal of the Republic and the establishment of a narrow oligarchy headed by Julian.

Upon the death of Pope Julius II., the next year, A. D. 1513, John de Medici was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, with the title of Leo X. Leo X. had derived from his illustrious father and the brilliant freethinkers of the New Academy as much regard for pagan mythology as for the Christian religion, but his mind had been improved by travel and the conversation of the greatest and wisest men of his time.

He had an excellent taste in art. His court was celebrated for the highest elegance and the most profuse magnificence. He had remarkably charming and amiable manners.

Leo X. differed from his stern and warlike predecessor in governmental principles as much as in manners. He dissolved the Holy League and made peace with France. He pursued his predecessor's policy of expelling all foreigners from Italy, for the purpose of uniting the entire peninsula under the rule of the Medici. His brother Julian was unfitted by his imbecile character for administering the government of a freedom-loving people, and therefore abdicated in favor of his nephew, Lorenzo II., and accepted the office of Captain-General of the Church, which his brother, the Pope, conferred upon him; and thus Florence became the slave of a despotic master.

In the meantime the English army which was to have been transported to the coast of Guienne in Spanish vessels had been landed in Spain by the order of King Ferdinand, who sought to enlist the English commander, the Marquis of Dorset, in his own schemes against the Kingdom of Navarre. The English declined to engage in actual hostilities against Navarre; but their presence as allies of Spain so overawed the Navarrese that the Duke of Alva, the Spanish general, was able to conquer the entire Kingdom of Navarre. That little kingdom was annexed to Spain; while its native sovereigns, who still retained their royal titles, only kept possession of the little principality of Bearn, on the north side of the Pyrenees.

In April, 1513, Margaret, regent of the Netherlands, concluded a new treaty at Mechlin between her father the Emperor Maximilian I., Ferdinand of Spain, Henry VIII. of England, and Pope Leo X., by which the contracting parties bound themselves to invade France from four different points, while still pursuing their combined hostilities against the French king in Italy.

Louis XII. hastened his preparations; and in May, 1513, his generals subdued all of Lombardy, except two towns, by a series of brilliant victories. The Italians, who were by this time equally disgusted with the inefficiency of Maximilian Sforza and the brutality of the Swiss, welcomed the French on every side. But the reaction was as sudden and rapid as the advance. The French were obliged to raise the siege of Novara in consequence of fresh arrivals of Swiss, and were defeated and driven beyond the Alps within a few days.

The English army under King Henry VIII. arrived at Calais, and was joined by the Emperor Maximilian I. in the siege of Terouenne; but the English victory in the "Battle of the Spurs," in which the French cavalry fled at the first onset, decided the fate of Terouenne, which surrendered and was destroyed, to the dismay of the Parisians. Several weeks after the Battle of the Spurs, September 9, 1513, King James IV. of Scotland, the generous ally of Louis XII. of France, was defeated and slain by an English army under the Earl of Surrey at Flodden Field, in the North-east corner of England.

The invasion of Burgundy by German and Swiss troops in the Emperor Maximilian's pay was defeated by bribery. This was the most disgraceful period in the history of the Swiss Republic, when the brave Swiss mountaineers successively sold themselves to the highest bidders, not content with once exchanging their blood for the gold of their purchasers.

The eventful year 1513 was signalized by still greater changes. Before it ended, Louis XII. had become reconciled with Pope Leo X., and sought the friendship of the Emperor Maximilian I. and King Ferdinand of Spain, for the purpose of furthering his designs upon Milan. As Anne of Brittany, the consort of Louis XII., died in January, 1514, he became the ally of Maximilian I. by engaging to marry the Emperor's granddaughter, Eleanora of Austria; while his own daughter Renée was affianced to the Archduke Charles, the heir to the sovereignty of Spain and the Netherlands, as the grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella,

and of the Emperor Maximilian I. and the Duchess Mary of Burgundy.

This projected alliance of families alarmed Pope Leo X. by its threatened union of Austria, France, Spain and the Netherlands into one vast dominion, which would have inevitably destroyed the newly cherished balance of power in Europe. With the support of two English prelates, the Pope arranged a new marriage-treaty, by which Louis XII. espoused Mary, the sister of Henry VIII. of England. This royal wedding occurred at Abbeville, in October, 1514; but the festivities in honor of the marriage proved fatal to the already failing health of Louis XII., who breathed his last January 1, 1515.

The Princess Claude, the eldest daughter of Louis XII., was already married to Duke Francis of Angoulême, the representative of the younger branch of the House of Orleans. As Louis XII. left no son, this prince at once became King of France with the title of FRANCIS I.; and the duchy of Brittany, or Bretagne, thenceforth remained a part of the Kingdom of France.

SECTION V.—FRANCIS I., CHARLES V. AND HENRY VIII.

FRANCIS I the new King of France, was twenty-one years of age, gay, brilliant and equally fond of pleasure and military glory. The cares of government in France fell into the hands of his mother, whom he made Duchess of Angoulême and Anjou. The queen-mother gathered the ladies of the noblest families around her, and under her auspices the French court first became noted for its elegance and extravagant gayety. The penetrating wit of French women, veiling profound art with consummate grace, has ever since exerted a good or evil influence in the affairs of France.

The Chancellor Duprat and the Constable de Bourbon—both of whom had been raised to their dignities by the queen-mother's favor—acted very conspicuous parts in the history of the reign of Francis I. Pedro Navarro, a famous military engineer, who had long been in the service of King Ferdinand of Spain, having been wronged by that sovereign, entered the armies of France; and from the recruits which he raised among the mountaineers of the Cevennes and the Pyrenees he presented Francis I. with the powerful assistance of regiments organized upon the model of the Spanish infantry.

The new French king at once assumed the title of Duke of Milan, and prepared to prosecute the claims of his dynasty in Northern Italy. A Swiss army guarded the passes of Mont Cenis and Mont Genèvre—the only western Alpine passes considered practicable—and was stationed in the Italian plain near the exits from the valleys.

In this emergency the French forces, numbering sixty-four thousand men, with seventy-two great and three hundred smaller cannon, performed one of the most remarkable transits mentioned in history. Guided by chamois-hunters, the two great French generals, Trivulzio and Lautrec, with the engineer Navarro, pioneered a more southerly route over the Col d' Argentière. This path, which was scarcely passable by the sure foot and the practiced eye of the mountaineer, was prepared by the skill and genius of Navarro for the transportation of heavy artillery. Bridges were placed across from one dizzy height to another. Masses of solid rock were disposed of by charges of gunpowder. Cannon were swung from peak to peak by means of ropes. The French army suddenly surprised the enemy by appearing on the Lombard plain.

A small division of cavalry, which had crossed the Alps by another route never before trodden by horses, had in the meantime surprised Prosper Colonna, the Pope's general, at Villa Franca, with seven hundred of his troops. The main army proceeded

ALBRECHT III. (ACHILLES).

BURGUNDIANS (1470).

KNIGHT IN FULL ARMOR AND LADY (MIDDLE OF 15TH CENTURY).

CITIZENS AND PEASANTS (15 CENTURY).

THE 15TH CENTURY.

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by way of Turin, the Swiss retiring before them to Milan and Novara; while a detachment marched southward and recovered Genoa and the entire region south of the Po by a bloodless victory.

A decisive battle fought at Marignano, about ten miles from Milan, September 14–15, 1515, transferred the Duchy of Milan from Maximilian Sforza to King Francis I. of France. The Swiss, after being reinforced by twenty thousand of their countrymen, burst upon the French quarters unexpectedly late in the afternoon. The fierce onset and the furious resistance rendered the result doubtful, and at midnight the exhausted combatants took a rest until daybreak. The French king slept on a gun-carriage, and rallied his troops at dawn with sound of trumpet. The Swiss retired in good order when a Venetian detachment appeared upon the scene. Francis I. was knighted on the battle-field by the Chevalier Bayard, "the knight without fear and without reproach."

Maximilian Sforza retired to France on a pension. Francis I. now entered into a close alliance with the Medici, the oppressors of Florence; thus sacrificing most of the advantages of his great victory at Marignano, and allowing himself to be persuaded by Pope Leo X. to postpone his attack upon Naples until the death of its sovereign, King Ferdinand of Spain. The French king made a treaty of peace and alliance with the Swiss at Geneva, thus gaining the important right to levy troops in Switzerland. He then disbanded most of his army, and appointed the Constable de Bourbon his viceroy in Milan, after which he retired into France.

Before the French king had left Italy, Pope Leo X. was conspiring with the Emperor Maximilian I., and with Kings Henry VIII. of England and Ferdinand of Spain, to invest Francisco Sforza with the Duchy of Milan, notwithstanding the fact that the Pope's recognition of the title of Francis I. to that duchy had been almost the only article in the Treaty of Bologna that favored the French king. But the coalition against Francis I. was disconcerted by the sudden death of King Ferdinand of Spain, in January, 1516.

The friends and enemies of Ferdinand expressed their various estimates of his character in his titles. "Spain called him the Wise; Italy, the Pious; France and England, the Perfidious." We can not help regarding the last of these epithets deserved when we are reminded of his ingratitude toward Columbus and Gonsalvo de Cordova, or the base deception by which he deprived his cousin Frederick of the crown of Naples. But he was the most successful sovereign of his time, and even his avarice and duplicity laid the foundation for the ascendency of Spain during the sixteenth century, while his bigoted and intolerant policy introduced the elements of the sudden and fatal decline of that kingdom.

The Emperor Maximilian I. fulfilled his part of the treaty by invading Lombardy in March, 1516, with a large force of German, Swiss and Spanish troops. The French general, Lautrec, was obliged to retire to Milan; while the other French commander, the Constable de Bourbon, burned the surrounding villages, for the purpose of depriving the enemy of all shelter.

Thirteen thousand Swiss in the French army refused to fight their countrymen in the Emperor Maximilian's army, which was now approaching; and the Constable de Bourbon was reluctantly obliged to dismiss them. But the Emperor's good fortune deserted him when it seemed within his grasp. His coffers were empty and his troops unpaid, as usual; and the Swiss colonel entered his bed-chamber one morning and bluntly told him that he would lead his followers over to the service of the French if their pay was not forthcoming.

Maximilian then left his army and made a hasty journey to Trent under pretense of collecting money; but he failed to return, whereupon his army disbanded, and its dispersed companies consoled themselves for their arrears of pay by pillaging several unoffending towns. The menacing war-cloud disappeared; and Maximilian I.,

conscious of the ridicule which he had incurred, never again led an army into the field.

Upon the death of King Ferdinand of Spain, in January, 1516, his celebrated prime-minister, Cardinal Ximenes, proclaimed his grandson, the Archduke Charles of Austria, as King of Spain, at Madrid, which had recently become the capital of Spain. Thus the Archduke Charles, who was also the grandson of the Emperor Maximilian I., and lord of the Netherlands, became CHARLES I. of Spain.

The Navarrese made an unsuccessful effort to restore the House of Albret; and Cardinal Ximenes wreaked a terrible vengeance upon the conquered kingdom, destroying its towns, villages and castles, two thousand in number, reserving only Pampeluna and a few places on the Ebro as military posts from which he might hold the Navarrese in awe. The exposed situation of Navarre and the Netherlands induced King Charles I. of Spain to cultivate the friendship of King Francis I. of France. By the Treaty of Noyon, Charles agreed to marry the infant daughter of Francis I., who was to have all her father's claims to Naples as her dowry; and already the Spanish monarch addressed the French sovereign, who was scarcely older than himself, as "My good father."

The Peace of Brussels, in December, 1516, closed the wars arising from the League of Cambray and the Holy League. In the fall of 1517 King Charles I. visited his Spanish kingdom for the first time since his accession to the Spanish throne, and the cloud which rested upon the mind of Queen Joanna was dispelled for a moment by the unexpected meeting. But the Spaniards were disgusted with the insolent rapacity of the Flemish courtiers who accompanied their new king and absorbed his confidence. A constant stream of gold flowed from Spain into the Netherlands, drawn from the Spanish offices and pensions.

The aged minister, Cardinal Ximenes, from his sick-bed addressed a letter to King Charles I., soliciting a personal interview. The Flemings feared the great minister's influence, and persuaded the king to reply in terms which veiled the coolest and basest ingratitude under the forms of courtesy, dismissing Ximenes from all his offices except that of bishop. This ungrateful treatment from a sovereign whom Ximenes had served so well and faithfully brought on a relapse of the fever which had already conquered the great minister's iron frame; and he died at the age of eighty, with his last breath commending his university at Alcala to the king's favor.

Cardinal Ximenes rendered his name illustrious by his Polyglot edition of the Bible—the greatest literary work of his time, and one of the greatest glories of the University of Alcala. This work was the production of nine scholars, deeply learned in the ancient languages, and sustained by the patronage and guided by the counsel of Ximenes. The Old Testament contained the original Hebrew, with Chaldaic, Greek and Latin versions. The New Testament contained the Greek and Vulgate versions. The type was cast at Alcala under the eye of Ximenes, as none yet existed in the Oriental character. The most ancient Hebrew texts were discovered among the confiscated property of the exiled Jews.

Besides his zeal for learning and his great ability as a statesman, Cardinal Ximenes possessed military talents. In 1509 he undertook to chastise the Moors of Africa for their depredations on the coast of Spain. He himself captured Oran by storm, and in pursuance of his plans several important Moorish fortresses became permanent possessions of Spain. The darkest side of his character belongs more properly to the age in which he lived. During his eleven years' presidency of the Inquisition, he "permitted," in the language of Llorente, two thousand five hundred and thirty-six persons to be burned to death, while fifty-one thousand one hundred and sixty-seven endured less severe punishments.

The Chancellorship of Spain, thus made vacant by the death of Cardinal Ximenes, was conferred upon a Fleming; and his Pri-

macy was bestowed upon another Fleming. The Castilian cities, which had been early given a voice in national affairs, now united in defense of their rights and addressed a petition to King Charles I., complaining of the illegal appointment of foreigners to high offices in Spain, and also of the increase of taxes and the exportation of coin. The king paid no attention to their complaints, but the Junta afterward threatened to overthrow the monarchy in Spain.

Upon the death of the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519, three kings became candidates for the imperial throne—Charles I. of Spain, Francis I. of France and Henry VIII. of England. The seven Electors of the German Empire chose the King of Spain, who thus became Emperor with the title of CHARLES V. As Maximilian's grandson and as Archduke of Austria and lord of the Netherlands, Charles had the best claim to the imperial dignity. Conscious of the vast powers they were bestowing, the seven Electors required Charles V. to give a solemn guarantee of all their privileges; and the Elector-Palatine, with the Archbishops of Mayence, Trèves and Cologne formed the *Electoral Union of the Rhine* for common defense.

The Emperor Charles V. was the most powerful monarch that had reigned in Christendom since the time of Charlemagne, and his dominions were far more extensive than those of Alexander the Great or those of Augustus Cæsar. As we have seen, while yet a youth he was lord of the rich and flourishing Netherlands, which he inherited from his father Philip, the son of the Emperor Maximilian I. and the Duchess Mary of Burgundy. As we have also seen, on the death of his maternal grandfather, King Ferdinand of Spain, in 1516, he obtained the crown of Spain with Naples, Sicily, Sardinia and the Spanish possessions in America; inheriting these through his mother Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. And lastly, as we have just noticed, on the death of his paternal grandfather, the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519, he succeeded by inheritance to the hereditary Austrian territories, and by election to the imperial throne of Germany. His Spanish dominions were enlarged by the conquest of Mexico by Cortez in 1521, and by the conquest of Peru by Pizarro in 1532. He soon bestowed his hereditary Austrian estates on his brother Ferdinand, who, as we shall presently see, added the Kingdom of Bohemia and a large part of Hungary to the possessions of the House of Hapsburg, A. D. 1526.

Charles V., having been born in 1500, was therefore only nineteen years of age when he became the leading prince of Christendom upon his election to the imperial throne in 1519. At this early age he gave but little promise of the commanding character by which he was subsequently distinguished. He was sluggish in mind and weak in body; but his motto "*Non Dum*" (Not Yet), which he assumed at his first tournament, expressed some consciousness of unawakened power. His Spanish subjects were extremely offended by his acceptance of the imperial crown; and the Spanish Cortes very reluctantly voted him a grant of money, to enable him to make a suitable appearance in his new dignity.

Francis I. was deeply offended by the election of Charles V. to the imperial throne, and became his rival and enemy. Four wars arose between the two monarchs, caused by the conflicting claims of each to the possession of Milan, Naples, Navarre and Burgundy. Charles V. demanded the restitution of Burgundy, which had been confiscated from his grandmother, the Duchess Mary, by Louis XI. of France. He inherited the right of the Hohenstaufen and Aragonian dynasties to the Kingdom of Naples, while Francis I. represented the House of Anjou. As Emperor, Charles V. became sovereign of the imperial fiefs in Italy, including the Duchy of Milan, which Francis I. claimed as head of the House of Orleans. All these rival claims of Charles V. and Francis I. afforded so many pretexts for indulging their ambition and jealousy.

Charles V. and Francis I. each wished to secure the favor of the vain and capricious

Henry VIII., who had ascended the throne of England upon the death of his father, Henry VII., in 1509, and who was, like themselves, a candidate for the imperial throne. On his way to Germany, after his election to the imperial throne, Charles V. visited Henry VIII. in England, for the purpose of diverting him from any alliance with Francis I. The Emperor won the English king's favor by gifts and promises to his celebrated Prime Minister, Cardinal Wolsey, while Henry VIII. was already opposed to Francis I. by his desire to renew the conquests of Henry V. in France.

Henry VIII. nevertheless proceeded to that celebrated interview with Francis I. at Calais, during the splendid festival of two weeks in June, 1520, known as the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*, because of the magnificence displayed on that occasion. In reading aloud his state-paper, prepared for the occasion, Henry VIII. is even said to have dropped his own customary title of "King of France." The Emperor Charles V. waited at Gravelines for the meeting of the Kings of England and France to be over; and afterwards passed some days with Henry VIII. at Calais, for the purpose of removing any favorable impression which the French king might have made upon him.

Charles V. was crowned as Emperor-Elect at Aix la Chapelle, in October, 1520; and in January following he held his first Diet at Worms, where events of the most momentous importance were transacted, which will be fully related in the next section.

SECTION VI.—CHARLES V. AND THE REFORMATION.

THE great religious Reformation, which caused the separation of most of the Teutonic nations from the Romish Church, was one of the most important events connected with the opening of the modern era.

For several centuries the Chair of St. Peter had been occupied by Popes whose vices and crimes were a reproach to Christendom; and men doubted whether such creatures were God's agents upon earth. The pious and eloquent St. Bernard—although a staunch adherent of the Church—had as early as the twelfth century condemned the vices of the Popes and clergy. Monks and nuns disgraced themselves by their shameful vices. All attempts at reformation were sternly suppressed by the Popes, backed by the whole power of the Church. We have noticed the extinction of the unfortunate creed of the Albigenses in blood; the bold denial of the papal assumptions by Wickliffe and Huss, the martyrdom of Huss, and the suppression of their attempts at reformation; and the bold denunciation of the wickedness of Popes and clergy by the pious Florentine, Savonarola, and his consequent martyrdom.

After the Councils of Constance and Basle, the Church continued to grow more and more corrupt. Seventy great crimes had been proven against Pope John XXIII. Alexander VI. (1492–1503), the worst of the Popes, poisoned political opponents and cardinals to obtain their wealth; and, as we have seen, his death was caused by accidentally drinking poisoned wine which he had intended for another. Julius II. (1503–1513), the warlike Pope, swore at God for giving the French the victory; and his military ambition and desire to extend his dominions ill accorded with his spiritual office. Pope Leo X. (1513–1521)—John de Medici, the accomplished but dissolute son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, the illustrious ruler of Florence—disgraced his station by his vices and his skepticism; although he was a great patron of literature and the arts.

As we shall presently see, the great Reformation was begun in Germany in 1517 by Dr. Martin Luther's bold opposition to the papal assumptions. Luther was the son of a miner, and was born at Eisleben in Saxe-

ony, November 10, 1483. His father had destined him to study. Like other poor scholars, he earned his daily bread by singing from door to door, and in this way he cultivated that love and talent for music which afterward enabled him to move the German heart by his hymns.

Luther had studied jurisprudence for four years at the University of Erfurt, when anxiety for the salvation of his soul, and the sudden death of a friend, caused him to enter an Augustinian monastery in 1507; and he was finally admitted as a monk, but he obtained no alleviation of his melancholy. His experience in the monastery at Erfurt caused him to regard the rites of the Church as insufficient to give peace to his soul, and only when he devoted himself diligently to the study of a Latin Bible which he found chained in the library did he obtain any comfort to his conscience.

In 1508 Luther was appointed Professor of Theology in the new University of Wittenberg, founded by Frederick the Wise, Elector of Saxony. His appointment was made on the recommendation of Staupitz, the chief of the Augustinian order. His clear and vigorous style caused multitudes of students to throng to his lectures. The Elector Frederick the Wise was a devout member of the Church, but also a firm friend and protector of Luther, whom he highly appreciated as the main ornament of his favorite university; and the esteem in which the Saxon Elector was held throughout Germany secured a respectful hearing for Luther's doctrines.

The insight which Luther had gained during his monastic life, and which made him doubt the efficacy of some of the doctrines and practices of the Church, was strengthened by a journey to Rome in 1510 on business connected with his Augustinian order, when his suspicions were fully confirmed. The warlike pomp and ambition of Pope Julius II., the avowed skepticism of the clergy, and their sacrilegious contempt for the mysteries of the faith, shocked his religious nature. While ascending the Holy Staircase he was reminded of the words "The just shall live by faith;" and these became the watch-word of the Reformation. He said in after years: "I would not for a hundred thousand florins have missed seeing Rome. I should always have felt an uneasy doubt whether I was not, after all, doing injustice to the Pope. As it is, I am quite satisfied on the point."

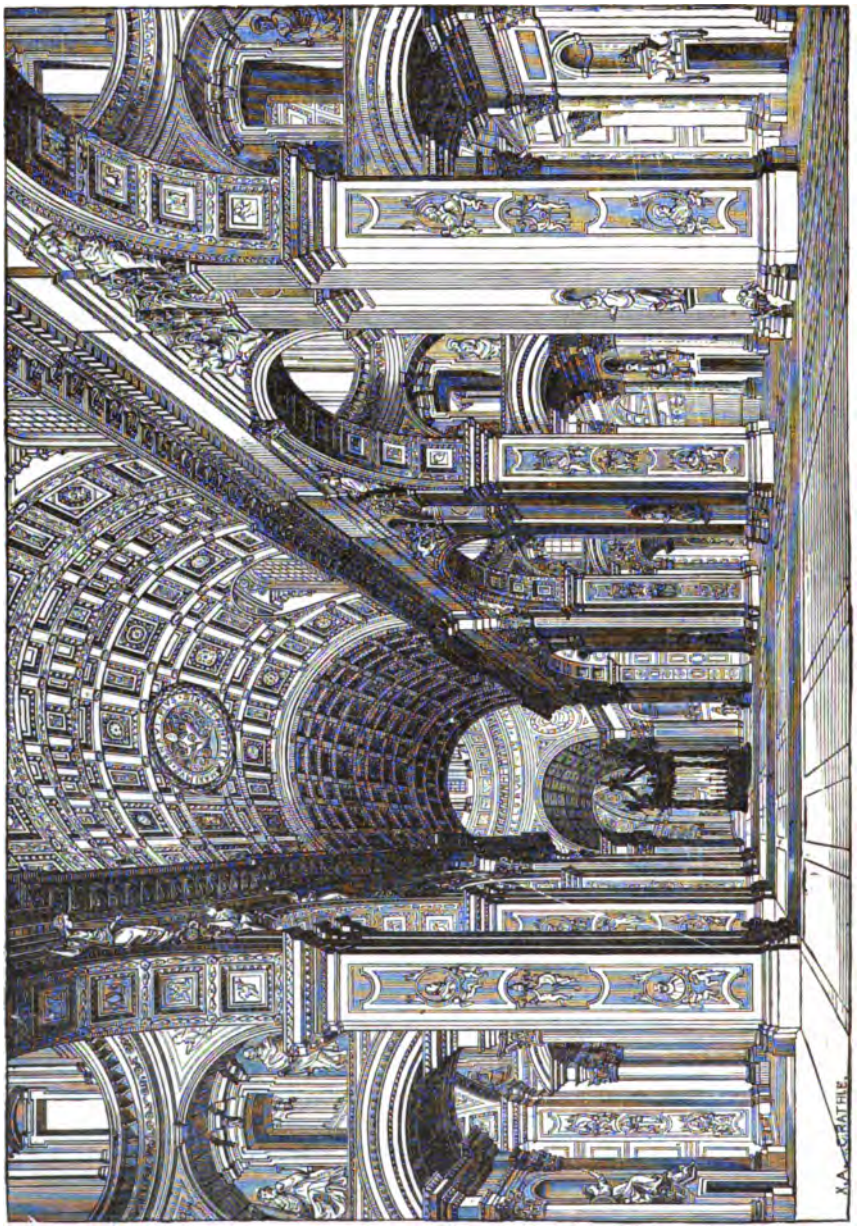
The sale of *indulgences*, or licenses to sin, by which past and future sins might be pardoned, brought matters to a crisis, and was the immediate cause of Luther's separation from the Church of Rome. The traffic in indulgences had risen from apparently innocent beginnings, by successive degrees, until it became the chief source of income to the papal treasury. At first, the remission of temporal penalties for sin was promised to all who took part in the Crusades; then to those who founded churches or monasteries, or to those who paid a certain sum of money as a commutation for personal service; and afterwards to those who performed pilgrimages, especially by visiting Rome during the years of Jubilee.

Pope Alexander VI. first assumed the right to remit the penalties of sin in a future life, in consideration of money paid or penances performed in this life. These indulgences soon became very popular; and people sought by their means to deliver the souls of their departed friends from the pains of purgatory, and to secure the same immunities for themselves hereafter.

Germany was the great market for the sale of indulgences, either from the credulity or piety of its people; and the large sums annually remitted to Rome on this account were there styled "the sins of the Germans." The management of this revenue was so open that the Popes farmed it out to the great Augsburg bankers, the Fuggers, and sometimes granted parts of it to temporal princes for limited times. Thus Frederick the Wise had himself obtained the sale of indulgences in Saxony for the purpose of building a bridge over the Elbe. In 1508 the King of Hungary received two-thirds of the proceeds in his kingdom for the prosecution of his wars against the

Turks. The Emperor at one time permitted the sale only on condition of the payment of one-third into his treasury.

In order to defray the expenses of building the great Cathedral of St. Peter's at Rome, which had been commenced by his famous predecessor Julius II., Pope Leo X. pushed the sale of indulgences with increased energy. The Elector Albert, Archbishop of Mayence and Primate of Germany —a young and immoral churchman—had bought his ecclesiastical dignity at an enormous price; and the Pope aided him to pay for it by a special dispensation of indulgences.



INTERIOR OF ST. PETER'S CHURCH AT ROME.

The archbishop employed John Tetzel, a Dominican monk of infamous and immoral character, as his agent for the sale of these indulgences throughout Germany. Tetzel traveled over the country selling for a fixed

price remission for past and future sins. Cried he: "Pour in your money, and whatever crimes you have committed, or may commit, are forgiven! Pour in your coin, and the souls of your friends and relations will fly out of purgatory the moment they hear the clink of your money at the bottom of the box!"

The following was Tetzel's form of absolution: "May our Lord Jesus Christ have mercy upon thee, and absolve thee by all the merits of his most holy passion; and I, by his authority, that of his blessed apostles, Peter and Paul, and of the most holy Pope, granted and committed to me in these parts, do absolve thee first from all ecclesiastical censures, in whatever manner they have been incurred, and then from all thy sins, transgressions and excesses, how enormous soever they may be, even from such as are reserved for the cognizance of the Holy See; and as far as the keys of the Holy Church extend I remit to you all punishment which you deserve in purgatory on their account; and I restore you to the holy sacraments of the Church, to the unity of the faithful, and to that innocence and purity which you possessed at baptism; so that when you die the gates of punishment shall be shut, and the gates of the paradise of delight shall be opened; and if you shall not die at present this grace shall remain in full force when you are at the point of death. In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost."

A gay young knight, who saw an opportunity for sport, bought an indulgence permitting him to beat and plunder a man for whom he said that he had a thorough contempt. After the paper had been duly signed and a liberal price paid for the indulgence, the knight with a band of his men-at-arms waylaid Tetzel himself in a wood, robbing him of the chest of gold which he had gained by the sale of his indulgences.

This disgraceful traffic shocked many good men, and Tetzel's overbearing conduct aroused great indignation in Germany. Animated by his new and ardent belief in justification by faith alone, Dr. Martin Luther preached vigorously and energetically against the traffic in indulgences, and refused absolution to any of his hearers who should buy the indulgences from Tetzel. On October 31, 1517, Luther nailed to his church-door his *ninety-five theses*, boldly denying the Pope's right to sell indulgences, and declaring that remission of sins is from God alone. This was the beginning of the great *Reformation*, which rapidly spread and which ended in the withdrawal of the Teutonic nations from the Church of Rome.

Tetzel and others of the clergy published replies to Luther's theses, and the matter was finally reported at Rome. Pope Leo X. paid little attention to this at first, saying: "It is a quarrel of the monks." He also said that Luther wrote well, and was evidently a man of genius. Dr. John von Eck, or Eckius, Chancellor of the University of Ingolstadt, a learned man and skillful in argument, was one of the first to oppose Luther in Leipsic. He composed a book in which he undertook to show that Luthers's heresy was identical with that of Huss, but Luther replied with such overwhelming force that Eck sought revenge by inducing the Pope to interfere and silence the audacious Reformer of Wittenberg.

In his disputation with Eck, Luther maintained that the Bishop of Rome was made Head of the Church by human and not by divine ordination, and expressed doubt of the infallibility of Councils and of the Pope himself. It was these bold avowals that caused Eck to compose his learned work called *The Obelisks*. Luther had urged that the Bishop of Rome became Head of the Church by a human arrangement, made some centuries after the rise of Christianity. Eck endeavored to prove that such was not the case, and proceeded to Rome with his book.

Luther's ninety-five theses had created great excitement in Germany, and a party had rapidly been formed about him which demanded a thorough reform in the doctrines and discipline of the Church. This party was very strong in the German cities.

Luther advanced steadily in his opinions and promulgated his views more boldly, thus driving forward the movement which he had begun with every advance of his own.

Pope Leo X. finally aroused himself to the significance of the movement in Germany, and summoned Luther to appear at Rome; but the Elector of Saxony was well aware of what would be the Reformer's fate if he obeyed the Pope's summons, and therefore interposed as Luther's sovereign by forbidding him to go to Rome and demanding that he should be tried for his doctrines in Germany.

In 1518 the Pope sent Cardinal Cajetan, or Cajetanus, into Germany as the papal legate, to examine Luther. Luther was summoned before Cajetan in the imperial Diet at Augsburg. Provided with a safe-conduct, Luther obeyed the summons, and declared his willingness to recant if it could be shown to him that his doctrines were contrary to the Holy Scriptures; but the cardinal refused to allow any discussion. Luther then offered to submit his doctrines to the four universities of Basle, Freiburg, Louvain and Paris; but Cajetan rejected the proposition with scorn. When Luther saw that he would not receive justice from the papal legate he drew up an appeal to the Pope, and affixed it to the door of Augsburg Cathedral, after which he fled from Augsburg by night and returned to Saxony. The Elector refused to banish him at the legate's demand.

The great majority of the German people were now on Luther's side, and his party was growing stronger every day. The most enlightened men of the time—poets, painters and scholars—united in doing honor to the great Reformer's piety and moral courage.

The death of the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519, and the contest for the German imperial crown which followed, produced a lull in the conflict of religious opinions for several years. The imperial crown was offered to the Elector of Saxony, but he refused it and recommended the young King Charles I. of Spain, who was accordingly chosen and became the Emperor Charles V., as already noticed. Charles V. was very willing to help the Pope; but, as Luther was the friend of the Elector of Saxony, to whom the new Emperor was indebted for his German crown, Charles V. could not immediately offend the Elector by proceeding against the great Reformer.

In 1520 Pope Leo X. condemned Luther's writings to be burned, and threatened the great Reformer with excommunication unless he recanted within sixty days; and on December 11th of the same year (1520) Luther publicly burned the papal bull of condemnation and the volumes of the canon-law of the Romish Church in the public square of Wittenberg. The Pope punished Luther and his adherents by solemnly excommunicating them from the Church, but Luther replied by excommunicating the Pope. In 1521 Luther appeared before the Diet of Worms, at the command of the Emperor Charles V., who provided the Reformer with a safe-conduct. Luther's friends, fearing for his safety, had advised him not to go to Worms; but the daring Reformer replied: "I will go to Worms if there be as many devils there as tiles on the roofs of the houses."

Luther's journey to Worms resembled a triumphal procession, as the people of many towns came a distance of many miles to meet him and to escort him. When he arrived at Worms he was escorted to his lodgings by a multitude of nobles and citizens. The next day he appeared before the assembled Diet. As he entered the great hall where the Diet was in session, George Frundsberg, the famous general, who afterward embraced his opinions, tapped him on the shoulder and said to him earnestly: "Little monk, little monk, thou art doing a more daring thing than I or any other general ever ventured on. But if thou art confident in thy cause, go on, in God's name, and be of good cheer, for He will not forsake thee."

Luther made an eloquent defense before the Diet, and when ordered to recant he

refused unless convinced from Scripture that he was wrong, and concluded thus: "Here I stand; I cannot do otherwise; God help me—Amen!" Some of the Pope's adherents advised the Emperor to violate his solemn promise and mete out to Luther the fate of Huss; but Charles, true to his word, allowed Luther to depart, saying: "No, I will not blush like Sigismund at Constance!"

The Emperor permitted Luther to depart from Worms, but warned him that thenceforth he must expect the treatment due a heretic. Charles V. then issued an edict condemning Luther as a heretic and punishing all who should shelter the Reformer, or print, sell, buy or read his books, by putting them under the ban of the Empire.

Soon after Luther had departed from Worms he was seized by a company of masked horsemen sent by the Elector of Saxony to secure him from his enemies. Luther was at once stripped of his monkish dress, attired in military costume, with a false beard, mounted on a spare horse, and hurried away to the manorial castle of Wartburg, in Thuringia, which belonged to the Elector Frederick the Wise. The Reformer lived in that castle almost a year under the name of "Ritter George." It was generally believed that he had been murdered, and his friends were greatly alarmed for his safety, but soon received tidings setting at rest all fears.

During this period of seclusion in the Wartburg castle Luther passed his time in the most important of all his works—the translation of the Scriptures into the German language. He continued striking at the dogmas of the Roman Catholic Church, and his disciples and the press of Germany circulated his writings broadcast over the Empire. The art of printing aided vastly in spreading the tenets of the great Reformer, so that all classes were made acquainted with his doctrines.

DR. MARTIN LUTHER.

Luther believed strongly in the Devil.

During his confinement in Wartburg castle he once threw his inkstand at the Devil's head, and the spot of ink is still shown on the wall. Said Luther: "Once, in our monastery at Wittenberg, I distinctly heard the Devil making a noise. As I sat down and began to study, the Devil came and made a noise behind my stove as though he would drag it away. At last, as he would not stop, I put my books by and went to bed. Another night I heard him overhead, but perceiving it was the Devil I paid no attention, and went to sleep again. This morning, when I awoke, the Devil said to me, 'Thou art a sinner.' I answered, 'Tell me something new, Devil, I knew that before.' He continued, 'What have you done with the monasteries?' I replied, 'What's that to thee? thy accursed worship goes on as ever.' The Devil sometimes casts me into such despair that I hardly know whether there is a God. He sets the law, sin and death before my eyes, compels me to ponder on this Trinity, and so torments me. He has sworn my death, but he will crack a hollow nut. When the Devil comes to me at night I give him these and the like answers, and say, 'Devil, I must now sleep, for this is God's command, to labor by day and sleep by night.' Then, if he charge me with being a sinner, I say, to spite him, 'Holy Satan! pray for me,' or 'Physician, heal thyself!' The Devil hates to be laughed at. He is of a melancholy disposition, and cheerful music soon puts him to flight."

During Luther's confinement in the Wartburg castle one of his earliest disciples, Dr. Carlstadt, began a series of hasty innovations at Wittenberg, abolishing the mass, extending the cup to the laity, and exercising his zeal against images and ceremonies with an eagerness equal to that of the Iconoclasts of the Byzantine Empire almost a thousand years before. Dr. Carlstadt was soon joined by the so-called Zurickhauer prophets, who denounced the baptism of infants, insisted upon the rebaptism of adults and were thus called *Anabaptists*, and believed in direct inspiration from God. These radical Reformers destroyed the robes used in celebrating mass, and also destroyed images in some churches; and monks fled in great alarm from their cloisters.

These hasty proceedings disturbed Luther's tranquillity of mind so that he could no longer remain at the castle of Wartburg. He therefore hastened to Wittenberg, preached against Dr. Carlstadt's innovations, pronouncing them over-hasty and uncharitable, and sought to bring about a more peaceful development of his views.

Wittenberg now became the seat of German culture. In its famous university Philip Melanchthon of Bretten had already occupied the chair of Professor of Greek at the age of twenty-two, and he was Luther's co-worker in the Reformation. This Reformer was of a pensive disposition, prone to mystical effusions of tender piety, while his mind was richly stored with classic lore. He had been captivated by Luther's eloquence; and, as he was of a timid disposition, he became one of the great Reformer's most zealous disciples and devoted friends. By his learned Latin writings Melanchthon endeavored to secure the doctrines of the new Church on a scientific basis.

Luther won the hearts of the people by his German writings and hymns; one of which—*Eine feste Burg ist unser Gott*, "A strong fort is our God"—became the battle hymn of the Reformation. His translation of the Bible into German begun at the Wartburg castle was completed at Wittenberg, and was first published in 1534. It was generally considered a masterpiece of the German language and an exponent of the German spirit.

The Lutheran doctrines soon spread from Saxony into other German states. The Landgrave Philip of Hesse, the founder of the University of Marburg, zealously supported the Reformation; while the educated burghers of the German imperial cities likewise distinguished themselves by their zeal in the same cause. For a long time the German nobility had coveted the Church property, and now they had a favorable opportunity to seize control over it. It ap-

peared for the time as if all Germany was being carried away by the Lutheran movement, and a national Church was rising.

The Catholic princes of Germany were naturally alarmed, and felt that all their power was needed to resist the new Church movement. The Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the brother of the Emperor Charles V., concluded a treaty of alliance at Ratisbon, or Regensburg, with Duke Louis of Bavaria, Duke William and several bishops and archbishops of Southern Germany, for the preservation of the Roman Catholic Church.

At the Diet of the German Empire held at Nuremberg in 1524 most of the German princes favored the Reformation. The war which the Emperor Charles V., as King of Spain, was waging against King Francis I. of France in Italy, by diverting the Empereror's attention from Germany, gave the Lutherans additional power; and while the Catholic princes of Germany were forming the League of Ratisbon the Lutherans held a meeting at Torgau in 1526, at which the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and the Elector John of Saxony entered into an alliance with several German cities to uphold the Reformation.

The tranquillity of Germany was now disturbed by several causes. Notwithstanding the abolition of the right of private warfare, the country was still scoured by lawless knights and their men-at-arms, who robbed merchants and wealthy travelers, and even cut off the right hands of their captives. Franz von Sickingen, the greatest of the Rhenish knights, headed a league organized in hostility to the German princes. The knights professed an inveterate animosity toward the priests, and claimed Luther's support; but the great Reformer dreaded the propagation of his doctrines by the sword, and exhorted Franz von Sickingen and his followers to observe the peace of the Empire.

PREACHING THE REFORMATION.

In spite of Luther's efforts, Franz von Sickingen and his supporters declared war against the Archbishop of Trèves, who was aided by the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and Frederick the Elector-Palatine. Franz von

Sickingen was deprived of many of his castles, after which he was besieged in Landstuhl, the massive walls of which were reduced to ruins by artillery; and he was found mortally wounded in one of the inner apartments. The victorious Archbishop of Trèves, upon entering the vaulted chamber, exclaimed: "What have I done, that you should attack me and my poor people?" The Landgrave Philip of Hesse also asked: "Or I, that you should overrun my lands in my minority?" Franz von Sickingen replied: "I must answer to a greater Lord." When asked to confess his sins he answered: "I have already in my heart confessed to God." The princes knelt in prayer, while the chaplain administered the religious rites, and Franz von Sickingen's soul passed away. Twenty-seven castles belonging to him and his supporters, and most of the similar strongholds in Franconia, were dismantled or destroyed.

During the next three years (A. D. 1523–1525) Germany was distracted by a terrible revolt of the peasantry of Suabia, Franconia, Alsace, Lorraine and the Palatinate. The fanatical discourses of the fickle Anabaptist, Thomas Münzer, attracted crowds of idle and unprincipled people around him by proclaiming the principles of Communism and instigating these people to plunder churches, convents and castles. This leader talked of abolishing all temporal and spiritual power, and of establishing a heavenly kingdom in which all men should be equal, and in which every distinction between rich and poor, noble and peasant, should disappear.

Thomas Münzer's harangues confused the excited peasants, and very soon the populace from the Boden Lake to Dreisam followed the leadership of Hans Müller of Bulgenbach, who had formerly been a soldier. Attired in a red mantle and cap, Hans Müller marched from village to village, at the head of his followers. The chief banner was borne behind him on a carriage decorated with boughs and ribbons. The revolted peasants carried with them twelve articles, the importance of which they were ready to maintain with their swords. By these articles they demanded the liberty of hunting, fishing, cutting wood, etc.; the abolition of serfdom, tithes and soccage duties; the right of choosing their own preachers; and the free preaching of the Gospel.

The peasants of the Odenwald soon afterward rose in revolt, as did those on the Neckar and in Franconia, under the leadership of the audacious publican, George Metzler. These revolted peasants forced the Counts of Hohenlohe, Lowenstein, Wertheim and Gemmingen, the Superiors of the German Order in Mergentheim, and others to accept the twelve articles and to concede to their subjects the privileges demanded. Any one venturing to resist them was put to death, as in the case of Count Helfenstein von Weinsberg. They marched through the land burning and devastating. They destroyed the castles and monasteries, and took a bloody revenge on their foes and oppressors. Under the leadership of gallant knights, like Florian Geier and Götz von Berlichingen of the Iron Hand, the revolted peasants marched into Wurzburg, while other bands of insurgents ravaged the lands of Baden.

The peasant revolt soon spread over all of Suabia, Franconia, Alsace, Lorraine and the Palatinate. The spiritual and temporal princes of Germany became alarmed, and granted some of the exasperated peasants' demands. In Thuringia and the Hartz mountains the insurrection assumed more of a religious character. In Mühlhausen, Thomas Münzer had acquired great respect and the reputation of a prophet. He rejected Luther's moderate views, girded himself with the sword of Gideon, and desired to found a divine kingdom, with freedom and equality for all. The people were so excited by his preaching that they destroyed castles, convents and churches with the most barbarous fury.

In the beginning of the present revolt Luther attempted to restore peace. He represented to the German princes and nobles that they had been guilty of acts of

violence, and he also exhorted the peasants to refrain from rebellion. But when the danger increased, when temporal and spiritual affairs were mingled together, he published a forcible tract "against the plundering and bloodthirsty peasants," calling upon the magistrates to attack them with the sword and to show them no mercy whatever.

In response to Luther's call, the German nobles and knights took the field against the rebel peasants. The Elector John of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and others marched into Thuringia, and gained an easy victory by means of their artillery over the half-starved peasants under Thomas Münzer, who was executed at Mülhausen after being subjected to the most horrible tortures.

The insurrection was suppressed in Suabia by Truchsess of Waldburg, the Captain of the Suabian League, who then marched with the Elector-Palatine and the warlike Archbishop of Trèves against the insurgent bands in Franconia, which were besieging the strong castle of Wurzburg, where the disorderly and disorganized populace were again subdued by superior military skill and better arms After a short resistance the rebels fled with precipitation, during which most of them were killed. Those who were taken prisoners were put to death, and the citizens of the Franconian towns who had sided with the insurgent peasantry were severely punished, many being beheaded by the ax of the executioner at Wurzburg.

The same scenes were enacted in Alsace, in the Palatinate and in Suabia, where the insurrection had continued longest. Order was finally restored by Truchsess of Waldburg and by the famous condottiere, George Frundsberg, who resorted to severe measures for the accomplishment of this result. The revolt was only quelled when one hundred thousand lives had been lost and many fertile fields reduced to desolation. In most places the peasants were again oppressed with all their former burdens, and in many localities the cry was loudly echoed: "If they have formerly been chastised with rods they shall now be scourged with scorpions."

The Reformation acquired additional strength in the midst of tumults and bloodshed, and Luther's energy increased with opposition. In 1524 he left the Augustinian cloisters, and in 1525 he married Catharine of Bora, who had formerly been a nun. He thereafter led a more domestic life, in the midst of a circle of princes, literary men and familiar friends. Neither poverty nor idleness affected his energy or zeal. He now devoted himself to framing a constitution for his Church and ordaining ministers for it. Having assailed the fundamental laws of the Romish Church, he was now obliged to substitute new laws in place of the old.

In a Diet of the German Empire assembled at Spires in 1526, presided over by the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the Emperor's brother, it was agreed to take no measures respecting religious affairs, but that each German state should regulate such matters at its own pleasure until a general council of the Church could be convened. The Elector John of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and other German Princes, thus encouraged, proceeded to make great changes in the Church in their respective dominions. The mass was abolished, and the church services were celebrated in the German language; while new systems of church government were introduced, convents were suppressed, and the lands and revenues of the Church were restricted to ecclesiastical purposes. Preaching was made the main pursuit of the clergy.

The Landgrave Philip of Hesse called a synod, which convened in October, 1526, and gave Lutheranism the definitive organization which it has ever since preserved. The duty of visiting all the churches of Saxony devolved upon Melanchthon, who was as active as Luther. The combined efforts of these two active and able men gave the Reformation such a mighty impulse that the Catholic princes of Germany were seriously alarmed. The printed copies

of the formula which Melanchthon had composed, and the two Catechisms which Luther had prepared, disseminated the Reformed doctrines among both old and young.

The Catholic German princes now combined to offer a more effectual resistance to the progress of the Reformation. In another imperial Diet convened at Spires in 1529, over which the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria also presided, the Catholic princes were in a majority. This Diet passed a decree "that the edicts of Worms should be observed in all the states in which they had been received; that the others should be free to continue in the new doctrines until the next general council. No one was allowed to preach in public against the mass, or to hinder its celebration."

This decree aroused the entire Lutheran party in the Diet, and the Lutheran princes and cities unanimously protested against this attack on the freedom of conscience and evangelical doctrine. This solemn *Protest*, duly signed by the Lutheran princes in the Diet, was sent to the Emperor Charles V.; and this circumstance gave the Lutherans the name of *Protestants*—a name ever since applied to all Christians outside of the Roman Catholic and Greek Churches.

These protesting princes at Spires were the Elector John of Saxony; the Landgrave Philip of Hesse; the Dukes of Grubenhagen, Celle and Mecklenburg; Prince Wolfgang of Anhalt; two Counts of Mansfeld; the Margrave George of Brandenburg; and the cities of Magdeburg, Strassburg, Nuremberg, Ulm, Constance, Reutlingen, Windsheim, Memmingen, Lindau, Kempten, Heilbronn, Issny, Weissenburg, Nördlingen and St. Gallen.

The Lutheran deputation met with a very cold reception from the Emperor Charles V., who refused to receive their protest. The protesting princes and cities would immediately have concluded a league for their mutual defense had not Luther and the other evangelical theologians forbidden it on the ground that "a magnanimous scrupulousness bade them reject the defense of the Word of God by worldly weapons."

Having driven the French out of Italy, and ended his second war with Francis I. of France by the Peace of Cambray in 1529, the Emperor Charles V. returned to Germany in 1530, and convened a Diet of the Empire at Augsburg the same year for the twofold purpose of suppressing the Reformation and adopting measures for the defeat of the Turks, whose invasions of Hungary and Austria had created serious alarm.

In this splendid imperial Diet at Augsburg, in 1530, the Lutheran princes who had protested in the Diet at Spires the preceding year presented the articles of their creed known as the *Confession of Augsburg*, which had been drawn up by the learned and peaceable Philip Melanchthon in both the German and Latin languages, and which had been approved by Luther. In this famous document the protesting princes claimed that they did not wish to found a new Church, but merely to reform and purify the old one.

After reading this document the Diet endeavored to effect a union of discordant elements in the Church by a conference of the men of moderate tempers selected by both parties. The Catholic theologians—Eck, Cochlaus, Wimpana, Faber and others—drew up a *Refutation* of the Confession of Augsburg, as it was called; and this was read to the assembled Diet. Melanchthon replied to the Catholic Refutation in a document of his own, called his *Apology*. The Emperor Charles V. afterward addressed the Diet, expressing his desire for the unity of the Church, and stating that otherwise he should be obliged to act in accordance with his oath as protector of the Holy Catholic Church.

The Diet of Augsburg was without results, as no reconciliation of opposing opinions could be effected, because Luther, who remained at Coburg during the sessions of the Diet, opposed the concessions required from the Reformed party. The protesting princes and the representatives of the principal imperial towns rejected the decisions of the Diet, and retired from Augsburg. The Emperor Charles V. declared that they

must decide before the 15th of April upon the course that they would pursue. He called on the German princes to sustain him, declaring that he was bound by his oath and by his conscience.

The Emperor's edict condemned the Lutheran heresy, and commanded all who had accepted it to return to their allegiance to the Holy Catholic Church. All the Church property that had been seized was to be restored, and the suppressed convents were to be reopened. All who disobeyed the Emperor's mandate were subject to outlawry.

The Emperor's decree did not intimidate the Lutherans the least; and the Elector John of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and the other protesting princes met at Schmalkald, in the Thuringian forest, in March, 1531, and concluded a league, defensive and offensive, for six years. The Catholic German princes dreaded the effect of a civil and religious war, as the Empire was constantly menaced by Turkish invasions; and Charles V. was obliged to conclude the Peace of Nuremberg with the League of Schmalkald in 1532.

Fearing that a Protestant successor to Charles V. on the imperial throne of Germany would be chosen, the Catholic party in the Empire resolved to secure a Catholic successor at once; and the Catholic German princes accordingly elected the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, who was crowned at Aix la Chapelle in 1531.

The Protestant Church of Germany was even already divided. Ulrich Zwingli, a priest of Glarus, born in 1484, was the leader of the Reformation in Switzerland. He was a classically educated priest, of republican principles. As Canon of Zurich he exerted himself zealously against the doctrine of indulgences, as preached by Samson, a Franciscan monk. He labored against all kinds of abuses, and against the Swiss custom of engaging as mercenaries in foreign military service.

Ulrich Zwingli was a man of practical understanding, without Luther's depth of mind or disposition, and did not concern himself with the reform of doctrine or creed, but with the improvement of life and morals. He engaged in the Reformation with little ceremony, as he desired to restore primitive Christianity in its simplest form. As he was agreed with the Chief Council of Zurich, he set about a thorough reform of ecclesiastical doctrine and practice; banished all images, crosses, candles, altars and organs fron the churches; and administered the Lord's Supper after the manner of the early Christian love-feasts, the communicants receiving the bread and wine while sitting.

Zwingli engaged in an irreconcilable controversy with Luther concerning the Lord's Supper. Zwingli recognized nothing but a token of remembrance and fellowship in that ceremony, and explained the words "this is my body" as meaning "this represents my body." Luther would not receive these words in such a sense, but maintained that Christ's blood and body were present in the bread and wine administered in the holy sacrament. The Landgrave Philip of Hesse sought to effect a reconciliation between the two sincere Reformers by means of a disputation between them at Marburg. Luther considered Zwingli's view a denial of Christ, and when Zwingli offered his brotherly hand with tears Luther drew back his own hand, thus refusing to receive the noble-hearted Zwingli as a brother. As Luther opposed any union with those German towns which had adopted Zwingli's doctrines, those towns presented their own confession of faith to the Diet of Augsburg.

Zwingli's appearance in Switzerland was followed by disturbances similar to those which followed Luther's appearance in Germany. The Church was reformed according to Zwingli's principles in Zurich, Basle, Berne, Schaffhausen, the Rhinethal and other cantons. The Catholics contended with the Zwinglians in Appenzell, the Grisons, St. Gall, Glarus and other cantons. In Zug, and in the four forest cantons—Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden and Lucerne—the Catholic faith maintained its as-

cendency, because of the influence of the monks and clergy over the simple populace, and because the custom of engaging in foreign military service, which formed the chief means of support among these people, was opposed by the Reformers.

The five Catholic cantons concluded an alliance with Austria, and vigorously and sternly suppressed every innovation; while Berne and Zurich aided the Reformation in the frontier towns with bigoted zeal and violence. In this agitated condition of Switzerland a civil and religious war was inevitable, especially as Zwingli meditated such a revolution as would give the political supremacy in the Republic to the two most powerful cantons, Berne and Zurich.

Mutual revilings of the clergy, which proceeded with perfect immunity from punishment, increased the public irritation and provoked hostilities. Berne and Zurich blockaded the public roads, thus preventing the transportation of goods and the necessaries of life—a proceeding which exasperated the Catholic cantons. The Catholics made secret preparations and attacked the people of Zurich unawares. The Zurichers, surprised and irresolute, and forsaken by the Bernese, sent a force of two thousand men against double that number of Catholics, but were totally defeated in the bloody battle of Kappel, in 1531, in which Zwingli was slain.

The brave Zwingli had accompanied his followers as field preacher, and fell beside the banner of the city; and along with him perished the staunchest friends of the Reformation in Switzerland. His dead body was subjected to the insults of his indignant foes, after which it was burned and the ashes scattered to the winds. The Catholic triumph restored the Romish Church in many places in Switzerland that had seemed to favor the Reformation, thus producing the religious divisions that have prevailed in the Swiss Republic ever since.

SECTION VII.—CHARLES V., FRANCIS I. AND THE TURKS.

IN THE meantime, during the progress of the Reformation in Germany, the Emperor Charles V. was engaged in his wars with King Francis I. of France—the first of that long series of wars between Austria and France that lasted with but brief intervals of peace for almost two centuries (A. D. 1520–1714).

The war began on the side of Navarre, which little kingdom was invaded by a French army under Andrew de Foix, a relative of the deposed King of Navarre, who quickly and easily effected the conquest of the kingdom, as almost all of its fortresses had been destroyed. He then sought to join the insurgents in Spain, who had secured control of the imbecile Queen Joanna, and who in her name endeavored to expel the regent appointed by Charles V.

The Castilian Junta demanded that Charles V. should reside in Spain, not in Germany or in the Netherlands; that he should appoint no foreigner to any civil or ecclesiastical office in Spain; and that he should convene the Cortes once in three years. The independence of the Cortes was guarded by a rule that none of its members should receive any place or pension from the king. Judges were to be maintained by regular salaries, and were forbidden to receive any portion of the fines or forfeitures of persons whom they condemned; while bishops were to reside in their dioceses at least half the year; and indulgences were to be sold in Spain only with the consent of the Cortes, and the proceeds therefrom were to be applied entirely to wars against the Moslems.

Charles V. rejected this bill of rights, whereupon the Castilian Junta appealed to arms; but the insurgent army of twenty

thousand men was defeated, and its leader was executed. The king's army prevented a junction of the rebels with the French force under Andrew de Foix; but when this French commander laid siege to a Castilian town even the Castilian insurgents turned against him and drove him into Navarre, where he was defeated, mortally wounded and taken prisoner, dying several days later of his wounds; and the Spaniards rapidly recovered Navarre.

By successively allying himself with Charles V. and Francis I., Pope Leo X. obtained the duchy of Urbino and the lordships of Modena, Reggio, Perugia and Fermo. In 1521 he united with the King of France to expel the Spaniards from Southern Italy, which was to be divided between the Pope and the French king's second son. As Francis I. delayed the ratification of this treaty, Pope Leo X. made a counter alliance with the Emperor Charles V. to drive the French from Northern Italy. The Pope allowed the Emperor to seize the territories of Venice in return for promising to extirpate the Lutheran heresy in Germany—an agreement which was signed in the presence of the German Diet on the same day with the Edict of Worms issued by the Emperor against Luther and his supporters.

Three months afterward a conference was held at Calais between the envoys of the Pope, the Emperor and the Kings of France and England. Henry VIII. had offered his mediation between Francis I. and Charles V.; and his great Prime Minister, Cardinal Wolsey, was courted and flattered by the two rival sovereigns, each of whom desired to gain the English king's favor. The Emperor pledged his vast influence to secure the Papacy to Wolsey at the death of Leo X., having already granted the English Prime Minister an annual pension of ten thousand ducats. The Conference of Calais failed to accomplish anything, as the conflicting claims of the rival monarchs could not be reconciled. Francis I. demanded the two kingdoms of Naples and Navarre; while Charles V. insisted that the King of France should relinquish Milan and Genoa, restore Burgundy, and release the Emperor from homage for the Netherlands.

Immediately afterward the Emperor of Germany and the King of England concluded a treaty by which each agreed to invade France with an army of forty thousand men, while the Pope excommunicated the King of France and absolved his subjects from their allegiance. Another treaty was afterward concluded between the Emperor Charles V., King Henry VIII. and Pope Leo X., by which all three agreed to take rigorous proceedings against heretics in their respective dominions; and Leo X. conferred the title of *Defender of the Faith* upon Henry VIII., who had just written a Latin work against Luther and the Reformation.

The Albrets recovered all that part of Navarre north of the Pyrenees, and ever afterward retained possession of it. In the Netherlands, the French took the town and fortress of Hesdin, but lost Tournay. In Italy, the principal seat of the war, the able French general Lautrec, a cruel and rapacious tyrant, as viceroy of Milan, enriched himself at the expense of the inhabitants; but the French king soon lost Milan through the dissensions of his court.

One of the two hostile parties at the French court was led by Louisa of Savoy, the mother of King Francis I.; the other by the Countess of Chateaubriand, the sister of the great general, Lautrec. The twenty thousand Swiss troops in Lautrec's service, discontented for want of pay, either marched home or deserted to the Emperor Charles V. Lautrec was besieged in Milan, and when the Spanish infantry made a night attack upon the Roman gate of the city that gate was opened by the Emperor's partisans in Milan, whereupon Lautrec and his brother fled.

Francis I. severely reproached his general for the loss of Milan. Lautrec threw the entire blame on Semblançai, the French Minister of Finance, for having failed to send him money for the payment of his Swiss troops, thus causing them to desert his standard. Semblançai declared that he

had paid the money to the king's mother, and offered to produce her receipt therefor; but the wicked Louisa, who had applied the money to her private use, had bribed a clerk in the treasury to steal the receipt; and the venerable Semblançai, respected for his years and his integrity, was sentenced to be executed, being thus sacrificed to screen the queen-mother's crime. The Chancelor Duprat, who was envious of Semblançai's influence over the king, who always called the aged minister "My father," was concerned in this crime. Duprat was then employed to raise money, which he effected by the most illegal and scandalous methods, alienating the royal domains, selling public offices to the highest bidder, and doubling the already oppressive taxes.

The fortress of Milan was still held by the French, but almost all the Lombard cities opened their gates to the Emperor's troops. The imperial troops also took Parma and Piacenza, and occupied them for Pope Leo X. according to treaty. Leo X. is said to have died of joy in consequence of these successes, but other accounts say that he was poisoned. He was forty-five years of age at his death, and had reigned eight years (A. D. 1513–1521). The victorious allies were thrown into confusion by this event. The papal army was disbanded for want of funds; and Urbino, Perugia and other places gladly received back their native rulers.

The next Pope, Adrian VI., who had been regent of Spain, was chosen to the Chair of St. Peter in 1522, after a long and violent contest in the conclave of cardinals. His scholastic education made him a bitter antagonist of Luther, but he was an honest man and deplored the corruptions of the Church. He began his reign with stern efforts at reform, entering Rome bare-footed, in scorn of the luxury of his predecessors, and turning with horror from the sculptures which Leo X. had collected in the Vatican, exclaiming: "These are pagan idols!" He kept but one old servant for his household. The elegant courtiers of Leo X. looked on with disgust, which was increased when the new Pope sought to replenish his exhausted finances by abolishing many useless and expensive offices; but the common people of Rome regarded his self-denying humility with enthusiastic reverence.

After being again defeated by the Emperor's troops, the French retired from Italy, surrendering all but the three citadels of Milan, Novara and Cremona. The Germans also took Genoa, of which Antoniotto Adorno became Doge.

The departure of the regent Adrian from Spain upon his election to the Papacy made it necessary for Charles V. to return to that discontented kingdom. He visited England on his way from Germany to Spain, and renewed his agreement with Cardinal Wolsey by fresh promises, at the same time flattering the English nation by making the Earl of Surrey his admiral and inducing Henry VIII. to declare war against the King of France.

Francis I. secured his eastern frontier by a treaty with Margaret, the Emperor's regent in the Netherlands, by which he promised not to invade or attack her territory of Franche-Comté for three years. The frequent renewal of this treaty left Burgundy and Franche-Comté in the enjoyment of peace, industry and prosperity for more than a century, while the Austro-French wars were raging around them. The three duchies of Savoy, Lorraine and Bar were likewise neutral territories; and these, along with Franche-Comté, thoroughly covered the eastern side of France.

For the next eight years (A. D. 1521–1529) Charles V. resided in his Kingdom of Spain, being absent all that time from his Empire of Germany. He won the hearts of his Spanish subjects by his lenity to those who had rebelled during his absence, by adopting the Spanish dress, language and manners, and by excluding all foreigners from civil or ecclesiastical offices. But he strengthened his own power at the expense of the popular liberties, by making the three estates of the Spanish Cortes meet in separate places, thus dividing their strength; by winning individual representatives of the

commons to his interest, and by prohibiting all debate except in the presence of a presiding officer appointed by himself.

Charles's policy toward his Moorish subjects was as unjust as his grandfather Ferdinand's treatment of the Jews. The refined and industrious Moors contributed vastly to the prosperity of Spain, while being allowed toleration for their own religion, but living in obedience to Spanish laws. In 1525 Charles suddenly resolved to force them to accept Christianity, causing their copies of the Koran to be seized and their mosques to be closed, and exiling from Spain all who were not baptized before a specified date, but preventing them from reaching Africa by closing all the Spanish ports against them except Corunna in the extreme North-west of the kingdom.

Charles afterward issued a harsher edict, confiscating the goods of all Moors who refused to embrace Christianity, and selling them into slavery. This atrocious policy caused a revolt among the Moors, thousands of whom were slain, while a hundred thousand succeeded in escaping to Africa. Those remaining in Spain conformed with reluctance to the Spanish rites, customs and language, but were deprived of all privileges and reduced to the condition of beasts of burden.

Pope Adrian VI. formed a powerful coalition against Francis I., whom he held responsible for the failure of Christendom to unite in a crusade against the Ottoman Turks, who had resumed their career of conquest. In 1523 the King of France sent another army into Italy to recover Milan; but his undertaking failed, in a great measure through the conduct of his wicked mother, Louisa of Savoy, whose injustice toward the Constable de Bourbon made that powerful French nobleman the most bitter enemy of the French court, and caused him to enter the service of the Emperor Charles V. against his own king and country.

The Constable de Bourbon possessed by inheritance and marriage four duchies, four counties, two viscounties, and many smaller lordships in the center of France; and he might even have hoped to inherit the French crown itself in case his kinsman, King Francis I., died without sons. His great military services had been rewarded with the highest dignities and revenues, but his cold and haughty temper did not suit the king's jovial disposition, and the court favorites delighted to annoy so powerful a rival.

On the death of the Constable's wife Susanna, the heiress of the elder branch of the House of Bourbon, the king's mother desired to marry him; but the Constable, who utterly detested Louisa's vices, expressed his dislike for her in such strong language that the king was provoked to strike him. Louisa's love for the Constable was thenceforth turned to the most inveterate hatred, and she resolved to ruin him. She put in a claim to all the Bourbon possessions in right of her mother, who represented another branch of the House of Bourbon, and obtained a decision from the Parliament of Paris in her favor, also securing to herself the private revenues of his mother-in-law, Anne.

Thus deprived of everything and reduced to the verge of ruin, the proud heart of the Constable de Bourbon sought bitter revenge; and in a moment of desperation he opened negotiations with the Emperor Charles V. and with Henry VIII. of England to betray his country into their hands. An arrangement was effected for the partition of France between Charles V., King Henry VIII. and the Constable. The hereditary dominions of the Bourbons, with Lyonnois, Dauphiny and Provence, were to be erected into an independent sovereignty for the Constable himself.

The plot seemed about to succeed. The English army landed at Calais, and was joined by an imperial force from the Netherlands, after which the united forces marched to within thirty-three miles from Paris. But the invasions of France on the sides of Germany and Spain failed, and the French king's discovery of the conspiracy prevented the Constable de Bourbon's vassals and retainers from executing their part in the

transaction. The Constable fled into Germany, and was received with open arms by the Emperor Charles V., who entrusted him with the command of his armies.

In this emergency Pope Adrian VI. died, A. D. 1523; whereupon the Cardinal Giulio de Medici was chosen by the conclave of cardinals, and assumed the title of Clement VII. Thus Cardinal Wolsey was a second time disappointed, and was obliged to content himself with the dignity of papal legate, or nuncio, in England, to which extraordinary powers were attached.

In the spring of 1524 the Constable de Bourbon entered Italy as the Emperor's Lieutenant-General. The allies forced the incompetent Bonnivet, the commander of the French forces, to retreat into France. In a battle near Romagnano, during this retreat, the Chevalier Bayard, *le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche*, "the knight without fear and without reproach," was mortally wounded. Unwilling that the retreating army should be delayed by his misfortune, he ordered himself to be placed against a tree with his face toward the enemy. In this condition he was found by the Constable de Bourbon, who lamented that the vicissitudes of war had reduced so noble a knight to such a fate; but the dying chevalier replied: "I am not an object of pity, Sir Duke. I die happy in having performed my duty to my king and country. It is you who deserve pity, who are bearing arms against your native land, forgetting that the death of every traitor is violent, and his memory detested."

This favorite hero of the age was the last model of chivalry that appeared in Europe. Though he held only the rank of captain, he really possessed more influence than any general, from the universal respect and admiration inspired by his high character. He had been taken prisoner by the English in the Battle of the Spurs in 1513. He was the ancestor of the Bayard family which has represented the State of Delaware in the United States Senate at different times for a century.

The German imperial army under the Constable de Bourbon and the Marquis Pescara now invaded France by the Cornice Road, captured Aix, Toulon and Frejus, and besieged Marseilles; but on the approach of Francis I. with a powerful army the Constable raised the siege and beat a precipitate retreat into Italy, pursued by the King of France with a well equipped army of thirty thousand men.

With characteristic imprudence, Francis I. laid siege to the strongly fortified town of Pavia, which was defended by a numerous garrison, under the command of Antonio de Leyva, an able general. The imperial generals, who were the viceroy Lannoy and the Constable de Bourbon, made the greatest efforts to collect a numerous army for the relief of the garrison of Pavia. The inactivity and indiscretion of the French king, who weakened his army by sending detachments against Naples and Savona, operated in favor of the imperialists.

Bourbon resolved to attack the French in their intrenchments; and on the night of February 23, 1523, Bourbon's army stormed the French camp, while at the same time the garrison of Pavia made a furious sally, thus placing the French between two fires. After a most sanguinary conflict, the French army was almost totally destroyed. Ten thousand brave warriors were either killed in the encounter, or drowned in the waters of the Ticino. The chivalrous Francis himself, after a gallant defense, was unhorsed and taken prisoner. He was recognized by an attendant of the Constable de Bourbon, who advised him to surrender. The chivalrous king scornfully refused to become the captive of his traitorous vassal, but called for Lannoy and surrendered his sword to that commander.

This was the greatest disaster that the French had suffered since the battle of Poitiers, as their king was a captive, and the flower of their nobility and soldiery was left dead on the sanguinary field. Bonnivet was among the slain, and when the Constable de Bourbon saw his dead body he exclaimed: "Unfortunate man, you have ruined France, yourself and me!" The

French army was permitted to retreat into France, and within a fortnight the last French soldier had recrossed the Alps. The captive Francis I. conveyed the sad intelligence of the great catastrophe to his mother in a single line: "Madame, all is lost but honor."

The battle of Pavia produced joy in Spain, terror in France, jealousy in England, and dissatisfaction in Italy. When the news reached Madrid, Charles forbade all public rejoicings, and sought to dissemble his natural exultation over the event. France was stricken with terror, and Paris was guarded as if the triumphant foe was already at its gates. The captive king's mother, who assumed the regency in this perilous crisis, had by her intrigues alienated those who should have been her best supporters.

Of the leading French princes of the blood royal, the Constable de Bourbon was declared a traitor; the Duke d' Alençon, the king's brother-in-law, had disgraced himself by cowardice in the battle of Pavia, and had since died of vexation and chagrin; and the Duke of Vendôme, an enemy to the queen-mother, was suspected of a secret understanding with the traitor Constable, but he silenced all suspicions by generously forgetting his grievances and joining the queen-mother at Lyons.

The Count of Guise, the founder of a family destined to act an important part in the future history of France, rendered good service by suppressing a peasant revolt which had spread from Germany into the French provinces of Lorraine, Champagne and Burgundy. The Parliament of Paris, which had assembled at once upon the sad tidings of the king's captivity, presented a long list of grievances, and demanded redress as a condition of granting supplies or adopting measures for the public defense. One of their demands was for the extermination of the Lutheran heretics, who were held responsible for all the calamities that had befallen France; and two of these pious and unoffending persons were soon burned to death at Paris.

Four months after the battle of Pavia the captive Francis I. was conveyed into Spain and incarcerated in the tower of the Alcazar at Madrid. He was attacked by a dangerous illness, brought on by mortification and anxiety; and Charles V., who had not hitherto deigned to visit his former "good father," "friend" and "brother," now feared that his royal prisoner would die without signing the severe conditions of peace which he desired to exact from him. He visited the captive monarch in prison, and a few words from the triumphant Emperor so raised the spirits of his illustrious prisoner that his health commenced improving.

The recently widowed Duchess of Alençon, the favorite sister of Francis I., undertook an embassy to Spain, with full authority to negotiate a treaty of peace between the two sovereigns; but she did not succeed in obtaining easy terms for her royal brother. Charles V. insisted upon a partition of France, by which he was to have Burgundy, Picardy and all the other territories of Charles the Bold of Burgundy; while Provence and all the Bourbon possessions were to be formed into a new kingdom for the Constable de Bourbon; and Normandy, Guienne and Gascony were to be bestowed on Henry VIII. of England. Thus the dominions of Francis I. would have been reduced to the territorial extent of the possessions of the first Capets.

In January, 1526, Francis I., worn out with his incarceration in the gloomy tower of the Alcazar at Madrid, swore to the Peace of Madrid "on the word and honor of a king." By this treaty the King of France agreed to cede the duchy of Burgundy and the counties of Flanders and Artois to the Emperor Charles V., renounced all claim to Naples and Milan, and restored to the Constable de Bourbon all his former possessions. He had previously told his ambassadors that he had acted under compulsion, and that he had no intention of executing the conditions which he was about to sign. Nevertheless, the treaty was confirmed by his betrothal with the Emperor's sister Eleanora, the widowed Queen of Portu-

gal. Two of the French king's sons were then delivered to Charles V. as hostages for the fulfillment of the treaty, and Francis I. bound himself to return to captivity if he did not relinquish Burgundy within four months.

Francis I. was then released and escorted to the French frontier, March 18, 1526. His joy at his release was unbounded. When he was once upon his own soil he mounted a Turkish horse; and, putting him at full speed and waving his hand over his head, he exclaimed aloud several times: "I am yet a king!"

No sooner had the King of France been again free and in his own dominions than he refused to ratify the treaty which had been extorted from him while a prisoner, on the plea that he must first consult the Estates of France and Burgundy on a matter of such importance. When the Burgundian Estates convened at Cognac they insisted, according to prearrangement, that the King of France could not annul his coronation-oath by any subsequent agreement. The Burgundian envoys likewise asserted that they would forcibly resist any effort to alienate the duchy of Burgundy from the crown of France.

Francis I. then offered the Spanish ambassadors, who were present, two million crowns as a compensation for Burgundy, and promised to fulfill every other condition of the treaty. When Charles V. was informed of this evasion he remarked that it was easy for the King of France at least to redeem his personal honor by returning into captivity in Spain; but the honor of Francis I. was not of the same kind as that of Regulus, or that of his own ancestor, King John the Good; and Pope Clement VII. soon absolved him from his engagements with the Emperor.

In the meantime the Italians had been thrown into consternation by the decisive victory of their powerful ally at Pavia, as all Italy appeared to be at the Emperor's mercy; and a *Holy League* was formed against Charles V. by Pope Clement VII., the Duke of Milan, the Venetian Republic and the King of France. Francisco Sforza had been restored to the Duchy of Milan only as a vassal; and his Chancellor, Morone, now contrived a plot to destroy the unity and freedom of Italy at one blow.

Pescara, who was an Italian by birth, but a Spaniard by descent, was known to be disaffected toward the Emperor. He ascertained through a trusty messenger that all the Italian states were ready to unite in making him King of Naples if he would disband the imperial army which he commanded, and thus aid in delivering Italy from the German and Spanish yoke. When Pescara discovered that this conspiracy was already known in Madrid he determined upon a counter-plot to meet the advances of the Milanese. He therefore invited Morone to a personal interview, and concealed the Spanish general, Antonio de Leyva, behind the tapestry. When the unsuspecting Chancellor had fully disclosed his master's plans he was seized, thus finding himself Pescara's victim rather than his partner.

Charles V. then deprived Francisco Sforza of the Duchy of Milan and bestowed it upon the Constable de Bourbon. Pescara died several weeks afterward. Morone remained a prisoner in Milan until the Constable de Bourbon, wanting money, first sentenced him to death, and then released him upon the payment of a ransom of twenty thousand ducats. The Milanese people, who had endured new miseries at every change of masters, hailed the Constable de Bourbon's arrival in the hope of a firm and settled government. The Constable promised to remove his army, which had been quartered upon the citizens of Milan, upon the payment of three hundred thousand crowns; but, when that sum was raised, the imperial troops still refused to evacuate the city, and some of the Milanese committed suicide in utter despair.

Pope Clement VII. soon endured greater misfortunes than the Milanese. Cardinal Colonna, a man of revengeful and lawless disposition, an old enemy of the Pope, but to whom he had been formally reconciled, suddenly raised an army of his own vassals

and retainers, and marched against Rome. The Pope was besieged in the Castle of St. Angelo in September, 1526, and was forced to surrender in three days for want of provisions. Colonna's freebooters plundered the Vatican and St. Peter's Church. The Kings of France and England hastened to send money and troops to His Holiness; and Clement VII. was soon enabled to exact a terrible vengeance from the Colonnas, whose palaces in Rome were leveled with the ground, while their country estates were ravaged by the papal troops.

In May, 1527, Rome suffered a more serious calamity. Frundsberg, the celebrated Lutheran general, marched from Germany into Italy at the head of eleven thousand brigands, who had enlisted in his service in the hope of plunder rather than of pay. Frundsberg's force formed a junction with the Constable de Bourbon's unpaid and hungry troops at Milan, and this united German and Spanish army marched against Rome. On their way they were met by a papal embassy proposing a truce; but the soldiery, who were resolved upon their coveted prize, openly mutinied, and leveled their spears at their general's breast while he was seeking to pacify them. Frundsberg was so stung by their ingratitude that he fell into violent convulsions, from which he never recovered; and his soldiers, struck with remorse too late, subsided into order, only reiterating their cry of "Rome! Rome!"

On the evening of May 5, 1527, the German and Spanish army arrived before the walls of Rome, and the next day the Eternal City was taken by storm and plundered by the soldiers of the leading Catholic prince of Christendom. The assault began in the morning, and the Constable de Bourbon was shot in the side while placing a ladder with his own hands. When he found that he must die he covered his face with his cloak, so that he might not be recognized, and breathed his last while his victorious troops were entering the papal capital. The Spanish and German troops selected the Prince of Orange for their general.

For two weeks the German and Spanish soldiery filled the religious capital of Christendom with the horrid scenes of massacre, pillage and desecration, and seized the treasures which had been the accumulation of so many centuries. The pillage of Rome by the Germans and Spaniards on this occasion equaled that of the Goths and the Vandals, more than a thousand years before. Convents, churches and dwelling-houses were plundered; and nearly eight thousand Romans were massacred on the day of the capture of the city. Pope Clement VII. was besieged in his Castle of St. Angelo, and soon obliged to surrender himself a prisoner.

The Florentines took advantage of the presence of the German imperial army in Italy to expel the Medici and to place themselves under the protection of France, thus seeking to restore the republic which Savonarola had set up. Venice recovered Ravenna and Cervia, and the Dukes of Urbino and Ferrara took revenge for their former disasters by seizing several cities in the States of the Church.

Charles V. affected great sorrow and displeasure at the insults suffered by the Head of the Church, but was inwardly pleased at the Pope's humiliation; and, instead of ordering the release of the Holy Father, the hypocritical Emperor commanded prayers for the liberation of the Pontiff to be offered in all the churches in his dominions, and attired himself and his court in mourning. Clement VII. was liberated six months after the capture of Rome, upon the payment of a ransom of several hundred thousand crowns of gold. He promised to convene a general council to reform the Church and suppress heresy, and also engaged to cease meddling in the affairs of Milan and Naples.

A French army under Lautrec had already marched into Italy; and a French fleet commanded by Andrea Doria, the great Genoese admiral, besieged Genoa, expelled the Doge Adorno, and appointed a governor in the name of the King of France. Lautrec took Pavia by storm and sacked the town, in revenge for its resistance to Francis I. and his consequent disaster there in 1525.

As Pope Clement VII. was now liberated, Lautrec marched into Southern Italy, and laid siege to Naples in conjunction with a Genoese and Venetian fleet. Had not the French king withheld the necessary supplies for his army, and offended the Dorias of Genoa by unjust treatment, Naples would have been taken. Andrea Doria deserted Francis I. and entered the service of Charles V., and sailed to Naples and forced the French to raise the siege. Lautrec had already died of a pestilence which had carried off most of his army.

This fourth invasion of Italy by the armies of Francis I. was a failure. The Prince of Orange was made viceroy of Naples for Charles V. The French were driven from Genoa, and that republic was reorganized under the Emperor's protection. The old struggle of Guelfs and Ghibellines was ended by a more just and efficient constitution, by which public affairs were intrusted to a Council of Four Hundred; and Genoa was entirely free from revolutions thereafter until the French conquest of that republic in 1797.

Both the rival monarchs were by this time weary of the war. The King of France, disheartened by his losses and the enormous expenses of the contest, was willing to relinquish his claims to Milan and Naples, which he perceived that he was unable to maintain; while the Emperor, alarmed at the rapid progress of the Reformation in Germany, desired peace with his rival in order to devote his entire attention to that danger.

The second war between Charles V. and Francis I. was ended by the Peace of Cambray, in July, 1529—called the *Ladies' Peace*, because it was negotiated by the Emperor's aunt and the French king's mother. Francis I. retained the duchy of Burgundy, but relinquished all his pretensions to Italy, along with the feudal sovereignty of the counties of Artois and Flanders. Charles V. received an indemnity of two million crowns in lieu of his claims to Burgundy, and Francis I. was to aid him with a fleet and a subsidy of two hundred thousand crowns when called upon. The King of France also agreed to marry Eleanora, the queen-dowager of Portugal, the Emperor's sister. The sons of Francis I., who had been held as hostages at Madrid, were released, and accompanied the Emperor's sister from Spain. In July, 1530, she became the wife of the French king. Thus ended the wars which the French had waged in Italy during the reigns of three of their kings, and which embraced a period of thirty-six years (A. D. 1494–1529).

In the meantime, while the Emperor Charles V. was engaged in devising means to resist the progress of the Reformation in Germany, and in his wars with Francis I. of France, his attention was also occupied in opposing the alarming progress of the Turks under their mighty Sultan, Solyman the Magnificent, whose rapid conquests spread dismay throughout Christendom.

SELIM I., who had usurped the Turkish throne in 1512 by dethroning his father, whom he put to death along with his two brothers and his five nephews, waged frequent wars with the modern Persian kingdom under the Suffeean dynasty, subdued Kurdistan and Mesopotamia, conquered Syria and Egypt in 1517 and annexed them to the Ottoman Empire, and was the first of the Ottoman Sultans to assume the sacred title of Khalif, which has ever since been borne by his successors.

On the death of Selim I. in 1520, after a short but active and vigorous reign of eight years, his illustrious son, SOLYMAN THE MAGNIFICENT, the greatest of all the Turkish Sultans, ascended the Ottoman throne. In the summer of 1521 Solyman invaded Hungary, captured the strong fortresses of Sabatz, Semlin and Belgrade, and conquered and annexed the southern part of the Hungarian kingdom, along with the Banat.

In 1522 Solyman besieged the Knights of St. John in their stronghold, the isle of Rhodes, with an army of one hundred and ten thousand men and a fleet of three hundred ships. The Knights of St. John, under their renowned Grand Master, L'Ile Adam, were compelled to surrender to over-

whelming numbers, December 21, 1522, after a long and valiant resistance. The Knights of St. John were then forced to retire from Rhodes, which they had held since the Crusades; and the Emperor Charles V. presented to them the isle of Malta, which they held until 1798.

In 1526 Europe was again thrown into the utmost consternation by the successes of Sultan Solyman the Magnificent. During the four years since his conquest of Rhodes, in 1522, he had completed the conquest of Egypt and shaken the very foundations of the Persian kingdom of the Suffeeans; after which he again turned toward Europe, declaring himself Emperor of the West as well as of the East, and designing to make Constantinople once more the capital of the civilized world.

Hungary was Solyman's first point of attack, and that kingdom had been reduced to the most deplorable weakness and poverty by the civil wars of its magnates. While the royal Council of Tolna was still wrangling about means to resist the Turkish invasion, the approach of the Turks was announced by the smoke of a burning town. Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, having crossed the Drave with three hundred thousand men, was in full march northward.

King Louis II. of Hungary, with only twenty thousand men, made a stand against the immense hosts of the Ottoman Sultan in the marshy plain of Mohacz, in August, 1526. His army consisted mainly of heavily armed cavalry; while the Grand Turk had availed himself of the latest improvements in firearms, and had a thoroughly disciplined infantry and three hundred well-mounted cannon in his camp. The dashing valor of the Hungarians was useless, as the flower of their nobility soon lay dead on the sanguinary field; and their young king perished in the marsh while seeking to make his escape, being then only nineteen years of age.

The triumphant Sultan marched toward Buda, burning towns and villages in his advance. After occupying the Hungarian capital for a fortnight he retired, taking with him the valuable library founded by Matthias Corvínus, and several works of art which were used to adorn Constantinople.

The death of King Louis II. at Mohacz left the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia vacant, and these were claimed by the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the brother of the Emperor Charles V., because he had married a sister of the unfortunate Louis II. Ferdinand was crowned at Prague as King of Bohemia, in February, 1527; but he found a formidable competitor for the Hungarian crown in John Zapolya, the greatest of the Hungarian magnates and the lord of seventy-two castles, and who was supported by the money and influence of Francis I. of France and Pope Clement VII. Zapolya received the crown of St. Stephen in November, 1526; but a party among the magnates pronounced in favor of Ferdinand, who marched with a large army from Bohemia into Hungary, won the battle of Tokay, and along with his wife was in turn crowned with the diadem of St. Stephen.

John Zapolya then entered into an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, who had subdued most of Bosnia, Croatia, Dalmatia and Slavonia, and again advanced to the plain of Mohacz in 1529, where Zapolya did homage to the Sultan for the Hungarian crown. After that degrading ceremony Zapolya accompanied the Grand Turk to Buda and aided in the massacre of its garrison.

The entire Turkish army, with the cooperation of a Turkish fleet in the Danube, then laid siege to Vienna, A. D. 1529. Both Catholics and Lutherans in Germany united in this perilous emergency, and the defense of Vienna was as resolute as the attack on the city was formidable. The very number of the Turks rendered their maintenance in a hostile country extremely difficult. They raised the siege of Vienna by the middle of October, 1529, and began their retreat from the Austrian capital, thus leaving John Zapolya alone to prosecute his civil war with Ferdinand of Austria.

It was the progress of the Turks that

compelled the Emperor Charles V. to conclude the Peace of Nuremberg with the League of Schmalkald in 1532. Upon the conclusion of this religious peace with his Protestant German subjects, the Emperor was soon followed near Vienna by an army of eighty thousand men. Sultan Solyman the Magnificent invaded Hungary a third time, in 1532, with an army of three hundred and fifty thousand men, and with a dazzling display of Oriental magnificence. The garrisons of many of the Hungarian fortresses sent him their keys, and his march resembled a peaceful progress through his own dominions rather than a hostile invasion of an enemy's territory.

But when the Turkish Sultan attacked the little fortress of Güns he encountered so gallant a resistance that his pride was severely wounded. His entire army was detained for more than three weeks by a garrison of only seven hundred men, who repulsed his eleven assaults upon the fortress, and who finally only allowed ten Janizaries to remain in the place an hour to erect the Ottoman standard.

The Sultan was further discouraged by the operations of the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria, in the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, and by the defeat of the Ottoman cavalry at the Sömmering Pass; and he therefore retreated hastily with the bulk of his mighty host, leaving only a force of sixty thousand men at Essek to support John Zapolya's interests. Peace was concluded between the Germano-Roman and Ottoman Turkish Empires the next year, A. D. 1533.

After his eight years' residence in Spain, the Emperor Charles V. visited Italy in 1529 to restore the order which had been interrupted so long by his wars with Francis I. of France. He completely subverted the freedom of Florence, which Pope Clement VII. had already sold to him in the Treaty of Barcelona. When the citizens of Florence refused to recall the Medici he ordered the Prince of Orange to lay siege to the city. Florence was fortified by the great artist, Michael Angelo, and the Florentine army outside the walls offered a valiant resistance to the Emperor's troops; but as the best Florentine general was slain in battle, and as another had proven a traitor, the city was forced to surrender and to receive an imperial garrison, to pay an enormous ransom, and to accept the hereditary rule of the Medici as dukes. The Prince of Orange was slain in the same battle; and, by his sister's marriage his titles and dominions came into the possession of the House of Nassau.

The Emperor Charles V. proceeded to Bologna, where he was invested by Pope Clement VII. with the iron crown of Lombardy and with the imperial diadem. The German Electors were not invited to take their hereditary parts in the ceremony. The Duke of Savoy carried the imperial crown, the Marquis of Montferrat the scepter, and the Duke of Urbino the sword. Charles V. was the last Emperor crowned in Italy.

Soon afterward Pope Clement VII., offended at the Emperor Charles V., courted the alliance of the King of France; and at Marseilles he negotiated the marriage of his niece, Catharine de Medici, with Henry, Duke of Orleans, the second son of Francis I. By the subsequent death of his elder brother, Henry became the heir to the French crown; and Catharine exerted a powerful and evil influence on the destinies of France during the reigns of her three sons.

Pope Clement VII. died in September, 1534. His pontificate had been signalized by losses and disasters which none of his predecessors had experienced. He had been taken prisoner, and Rome had been plundered and desecrated, once by one of the cardinals of the Church, and once by the Emperor's troops. Large parts of Germany and Switzerland had finally severed their connection with the Church of Rome, as had also England, Denmark and Sweden. His successor in the Papacy was Alexander Farnese, who, upon his election by the conclave of cardinals, assumed the title of Paul III.

At this time the coasts of the Mediter-

ranean were infested by Mohammedan pirates, particularly by the "flying squadrons" of Hayraddin Barbarossa, who had become King of Algiers upon the death of his brother Horuc. Sultan Solyman the Magnificent appointed this daring freebooter his admiral. Such was the terror spread by his piracies that no man slept securely along the coasts of Spain, France and Italy; and multitudes of Christian captives on the African coast were reduced to the most degrading servitude, while waiting to be ransomed. Hayraddin Barbarossa had recently taken possession of the Kingdom of Tunis, after expelling its rightful sovereign, Muley Hassan; and the terror of his name was vastly heightened by this increase of his power.

In 1535 the Emperor Charles V. undertook a crusade against these Moslem pirates, and this was one of the most famous and successful of his enterprises. He mustered thirty thousand men at Cagliari, in the island of Sardinia, took command of the expedition in person, sailed to the African coast, and effected a landing near the site of the ancient Utica. He took by storm the fortress of Goletta, which protects Tunis; after which he routed Hayraddin Barbarossa in a pitched battle, and took Tunis itself with the aid of the Christian captives. He restored Muley Hassan to his throne on condition that he should suppress piracy, protect his Christian subjects in the exercise of their religion, and pay to the Emperor an annual tribute of twelve thousand ducats. The liberated Christian captives, whom Charles V. had caused to be clothed and equipped at his own expense, preceded him to Europe, and spread his fame with ardent gratitude through their respective countries. The number of liberated Christian captives was twenty-two thousand.

When Charles V. returned to Europe from his African expedition he became involved in his third war with Francis I. of France, caused by the French king's claim to the Duchy of Savoy. The reigning Duke of Savoy was the uncle of Francis I., but was closely allied with the Emperor by both marriage and interest. A French force overran Savoy early in 1536. As all efforts at negotiation failed, Charles V. declared war and assembled armies in Italy and the Netherlands to invade France from those two quarters.

In pursuance of the usual cruel policy of Francis I., the Constable de Montmorenci, the French commander, laid waste the region between the Rhone and the Alps, embracing Dauphiny and Provence. Towns, villages and mills were destroyed; crops were burned; and wells were poisoned. Charles V. invaded Provence by way of Italy and besieged Marseilles, but the destructive policy of the Constable de Montmorenci soon forced the Emperor to make a disgraceful retreat. The imperial army which invaded Picardy from the Netherlands met with no better success.

Elated by his rival's discomfiture, Francis I. now cherished new plans of conquest in Italy and in the Netherlands. He formed an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, who continued his invasions of Hungary, and whose fleets swept the Mediterranean, carrying off captives from the shores of Italy. But the French king's great preparations came to naught. An armistice was signed in July, 1537; and the ten years' Truce of Nice in 1538 was followed by the Peace of Toledo in 1539, the "Perpetual Peace." Francis I. kept Savoy, Bresse and half of Piedmont; while Charles V. retained the other half of Piedmont and the Duchy of Milan. The Duke of Savoy, who had been thus robbed of his dominions, had to content himself with the little county of Nice.

Geneva, which had long been nominally subject to the Dukes of Savoy, but really ruled by its bishops, now became an independent republic, and was ruled for twenty-five years by John Calvin, through whose influence it became the stronghold of the Reformation in all French-speaking lands, and a great European center of religious, political and scientific progress.

Under the influence of the Constable de Montmorenci, King Francis I. broke off his friendship with Henry VIII. of England

and his alliance with the Turkish Sultan and with the Lutheran princes of Germany who had formed the League of Schmalkald, while he cultivated the Emperor's friendship. The French ambassador in England even proposed a scheme for the partition of that kingdom between Charles V., Francis I., and James V. of Scotland. When the English monarch was informed of this project he allied himself more closely with the League of Schmalkald by marrying Anne of Cleves, his fourth wife, the sister of the wife of the Elector John Frederick of Saxony, one of the most powerful of the Protestant princes of Germany.

Hayraddin Barbarossa's pirate fleet soon resumed its ravages in the Levant and wrested almost all the islands of the Archipelago from the Venetians, who also lost several places on the mainland, and were forced to pay a ransom which exhausted their resources and left the Venetian Republic dependent upon the protection of France.

Though the Emperor Charles V., as King of Spain, was master of the wealthy countries of Mexico and Peru, in the New World, he found great difficulty in meeting the expenses of his government; and the Spaniards were so reluctant to be taxed for enterprises in which they had no interest that their Cortes refused to vote supplies. Charles revenged himself by ceasing to convene the Cortes. The grandees, thus deprived of political power, consoled themselves by maintaining all the ceremony of royal courts in their palaces and country-seats and by exercising sovereignty over thousands of vassals. When they had ruined their fortunes by their extravagance, and had lost all their warlike energy by a life of indolence, they were no longer formidable to their great sovereign.

The Emperor's subjects in the Netherlands likewise protested against the oppressive taxation with which he burdened them. His native city, Ghent, rose in revolt and sent envoys to the King of France, acknowledging him as its sovereign. As Francis I. was at that time on friendly terms with Charles V. he betrayed the confidence of the insurgents of Ghent, and even invited the Emperor to pass through France on his way to punish the rebels.

Francis entertained Charles with the greatest magnificence, but as soon as the Emperor had entered the Netherlands he received a demand from the King of France for the investiture of Milan as compensation for his safe passage through France. Charles V. refused this demand except upon conditions which Francis I. would not accept, and during the same year the Duchy of Milan was conferred on the Emperor's son Philip.

Charles V. entered the rebellious city of Ghent, his birth-place, on his birthday, when he was forty years of age, A. D. 1540. All the leading citizens, with bare heads and bare feet, implored pardon on their knees; but their sovereign's vengeance was not softened by submission. Twenty magistrates were beheaded. The old Abbey of St. Bavon and the Bell Roland, which, from its tower, had so often summoned a free people to arms, were destroyed; and the fines of the citizens went to pay for the erection of a fortress on its site. Charles deprived Ghent of all its political privileges. Its commercial prosperity was transferred to Antwerp. The Northern provinces of the Netherlands inherited its brave enthusiasm for freedom, and afterward wrested their independence from Charles's son and successor, as we shall presently see.

Disappointed in his mercenary designs, Francis I. of France dismissed the Constable de Montmorenci, and renewed his alliance with the Lutheran princes of Germany and with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent. The death of King John Zapolya of Hungary was followed by a renewal of hostilities between the German and Ottoman Empires. Before the troops which the German Diet at Ratisbon had voted could take the field against the Turks, Solyman the Magnificent had entered Buda, the Hungarian capital, a third time, A. D. 1541; and that city remained under the

Turkish government and the Mohammedan religion for the next one hundred and forty-six years.

Ferdinand of Austria vainly sent ambassadors to the Grand Turk, offering to hold Hungary as a tributary of the Ottoman Porte. The haughty Sultan replied by demanding an annual tribute from Ferdinand for the Archduchy of Austria. The Elector Joachim II. of Brandenburg led a German army into Hungary and laid siege to Pesth, opposite Buda, but he failed; and the Turks took one town after another in Hungary until 1547, when Sultan Solyman the Magnificent consented to a truce for five years, as he desired to turn his arms against Persia. The Ottoman Porte appointed twelve officers to govern Turkish Hungary.

In 1541 the Emperor Charles V. led another expedition to Africa, for the purpose of thoroughly annihilating the power of the piratical Mohammedans of Algiers. But this expedition was a total failure. The fleet of Charles was destroyed by a terrible storm, and many of his followers died of a pestilential disease; and the Emperor, who had magnanimously shared all the sufferings of the humblest of his followers, was obliged to reëmbark and to return to Europe without effecting his object, landing at the Spanish port of Cartagena in December of the same year, A. D. 1541.

Francis I. of France received the news of the Emperor's calamities in Africa with unconcealed joy, and at once proceeded to enter into an alliance with the Sultan of Turkey, the Kings of Denmark and Sweden, the Duke of Cleves and the rebellious party in Naples, against Charles V.; but Henry VIII. of England, offended by the French king's intrigues with King James V. of Scotland, rejected the advances of Francis I.

In the summer of 1542 five French armies were in the field against the Emperor, three of which were to invade the Netherlands, one to operate in Italy, and one to threaten Spain. The French army under the Duke of Guise took many of the fortresses of Luxemburg; but the French king's second son, who nominally commanded this French army, disbanded his army and was to join his brother the Dauphin, who commanded the French army which operated against Spain, and who was planning a pitched battle; and the Regent of the Netherlands easily retook Luxemburg and Montmédy.

The Dauphin was unsuccessful in the siege of Perpignan, through the incompetency of his engineers and the violence of the autumnal rains. Perpignan was defended by the Spanish force under the Duke of Alva, with the coöperation of the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria. Francis I. approached within forty miles of the beleaguered town, but when he perceived the hopelessness of the enterprise he ordered the raising of the siege. His vast preparations had been dissipated in trivial undertakings, and the results of his efforts were the capture of a few small towns in Picardy and in Northern Italy.

Charles V. now proceeded to Germany to chastise the Duke of Cleves for his alliance with the King of France. The Emperor took Düren, in the duchy of Jüliers, or Jülich, by storm, and caused the entire population of the town to be massacred; whereupon the duchy of Jülich immediately submitted to the Emperor, and the Duke of Cleves hastened to offer his submission to his offended sovereign. The Emperor refused to look at him for a time; but at length he granted very humiliating terms of peace to the humbled duke, who was obliged to give up the provinces of Guelders and Zutphen in the Netherlands, to renounce the Protestant worship and the alliance with France, and to transfer all the ducal troops to the imperial armies.

The Turkish freebooters, the most disgraceful allies of the French, ravaged Southern Italy, burning Reggio, destroying all vineyards and olive-orchards near the coast, carrying off many of the inhabitants, and appearing at the mouth of the Tiber and threatening Rome itself. When the French ambassador interfered in the Pope's behalf, Hayraddin Barbarossa sailed to Marseilles, where he found a ready market for his Italian captives, May, 1543. To

pacify the Turkish admiral, Francis I. ordered an attack on Nice; and that stronghold of the Duke of Savoy was bombarded by the allied French and Turkish fleets, but was saved from capture by the opportune arrival of Andrea Doria's Genoese fleet and a Spanish army, which drove away the Franco-Turkish fleet. The French king assigned the city of Toulon to the Turks for winter-quarters, and for the time that French sea-port was a Mohammedan town. The disgraceful union of the Cross and the Crescent, in the alliance of the French with the Turks, shocked all Christendom.

The imminent peril with which the near presence of the Turks menaced the dominions of Charles V. induced the Emperor to renew his concessions to the Lutheran princes of Germany in the Diet of Spires in 1544; and the Lutherans in return vied with the Catholics of the German Empire in voting supplies for the war against the Emperor's foreign foes.

Hostilities were vigorously prosecuted in Piedmont during the winter of 1543–'44. The French under the Count d'Enghien defeated the imperialists at Cerisolles, in Savoy, April 14, 1544. As the King of France had secured the alliance of the Turks by sacrificing all other alliances, he was now obliged to get rid of these uncontrolable allies by the payment of almost a million crowns. The Turkish corsairs had conducted themselves at Toulon as if they had been in an enemy's country, seizing men even in the royal galleys for service in the Turkish fleet, and enslaving all whom they captured in the vicinity. Hayraddin Barbarossa had sailed for Constantinople in April, 1544, desolating the Italian coasts on his way.

In the meantime Charles V. had secured the alliance of Henry VIII. of England; and by a treaty which these two monarchs signed in February, 1543, they agreed to attempt the conquest of France, and, if successful, to partition that kingdom between them. In July, 1544, Henry VIII. landed at Calais with thirty thousand men, and took Boulogne after a siege of two months; while Charles V. led a large army into Champagne and besieged St. Dizier for six weeks, during which Francis I. was enabled to raise a large army to cover the approaches to Paris. When the Emperor had advanced to Chateau Thierry, within two days' march of Paris, he opened negotiations with the French king, without consulting his ally, the King of England.

By the Peace of Crespy between Charles V. and Francis I., September 18, 1544, each monarch relinquished the territory which he had taken since the Truce of Nice in 1538. The King of France once more renounced his claims to Naples and Flanders, and agreed to surrender Savoy on condition that his third son, the Duke of Orleans, should be invested with the Duchy of Milan, and should receive in marriage a daughter of the Emperor or of the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria. The French king also agreed to coöperate with the Emperor in suppressing the Reformation and in defending Christendom against the Turks.

The premature death of the Duke of Orleans prevented the execution of the articles of the Treaty of Crespy concerning the Duchies of Savoy and Milan. Henry VIII. refused to take part in the Treaty of Crespy, and a desultory war went on between him and Francis I. until June, 1546, when peace was signed between them.

Both Charles V. and Francis I. at once proceeded to execute the article of the Peace of Crespy relating to the extirpation of heresy in their respective dominions. Charles ordered certain doctors of the University of Louvain to draw up a Confession of Faith, which he required all his subjects in the Netherlands to accept under penalty of death. To show that he was in earnest, he caused Peter du Breuil, a Calvinistic preacher, to be burned to death in the market-place of Tournay, February, 1545.

The King of France signalized his zeal for the Catholic faith by a persecution of the innocent Vaudois, or Waldenses, in the high Alpine valleys between France and Piedmont—a persecution so cruel that it

would have disgraced the worst of the pagan Roman Emperors. The simple Vaudois had retained the purity of their Christian faith and worship from the earliest times, uncorrupted by the materialistic rites which had found their way into the wealthier and more elegant churches. They had recently hailed the doctrines of the Reformation as in accordance with their own faith—a circumstance which drew the attention of Europe to these hitherto-unnoticed and obscure heretics.

On New Year's Day, 1545, Francis I. addressed a letter to the Parliament of Provence, demanding the execution of the decree which it had passed in 1540 for the suppression of heresy, but which had been suspended hitherto by the intercession of the German Protestants. This atrocious edict required all fathers of families who persisted in heresy to be burned, their wives and children to be reduced to serfdom, their property to be confiscated, and their dwellings to be destroyed.

A Vaudois colony settled in the rugged mountain region north of the Durance, which their patient industry had converted into a fruitful garden, was the special object of the French king's persecution. The Baron d'Oppède, whose forces had been trained by the plundering and devastating campaigns of the French in Italy, was a fit instrument for this work of desolation. His bands soon overran the Vaudois country, laid waste the vineyards, orchards and grain-fields, and massacred the innocent inhabitants. The little town of Cabrières was induced to surrender by a promise that no one should be put to death—a promise that was violated as soon as the population were in the power of their cruel foes, who slaughtered their innocent victims without the least show of mercy. Those who had sought refuge in the mountains were hunted like wild beasts; and some of the strongest were chained to the galleys, while the others were butchered.

This cruel persecution of the simple Vaudois horrified most of Europe; but the French clergy, who had demanded it of their king, boldly avowed and sanctioned the atrocity. The fires of persecution were kindled throughout France, and Protestants were publicly burned at Paris, Meaux, Sens and Issoire. Briçonnet, the good Bishop of Meaux, had introduced the Reformed doctrines into that city twenty years before; and it became one of the centers of the Reformation in France. One of its martyrs was Stephen Dolet, a celebrated French scholar and author, who was highly esteemed by the literary men of that period.

Notwithstanding his many faults and vices, Francis I. was one of the greatest of the Kings of France. His great weakness was his subserviency to his wicked mother and mistresses, who ruled him thoroughly, and whose folly was accountable for most of the reverses which had befallen him. But his great sagacity clearly perceived the danger with which France and all Europe were menaced by the towering ambition of the illustrious royal Austrian House of Hapsburg. He struggled single-handed for thirty years against the most powerful monarch that had reigned in Christendom since the time of Charlemagne, and left France to his successor wholly unimpaired and even increased in territorial extent.

Francis I. was called the *Restorer of Letters and the Arts*, because of the wise and liberal encouragement and patronage which he gave to the revival of learning and the arts which distinguished his era; and many of the noblest monuments of France had their origin during his reign. He died March 31, 1547, of a painful malady from which he had long suffered, and which had been caused by his immoral life; and was succeeded by his son HENRY II. Henry VIII. of England died the same year.

Thus two of the six great contemporary European sovereigns of the first half of the sixteenth century passed from the world's stage. The four remaining were the Emperor Charles V., Sultan Solyman the Magnificent of Turkey, the Czar Ivan the Terrible of Russia, and King Gustavus Vasa of Sweden.

SECTION VIII.—WAR OF RELIGION IN GERMANY.

AS THE Emperor Charles V., after the Peace of Cambray, in 1529, seemed determined to suppress the religious Reformation in his dominions, the Protestant princes of Germany, with the Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hesse at their head, united in 1531 for their own protection, and formed an alliance, known as the *League of Schmalkald*, which was joined by the Kings of England, France, Denmark and Sweden.

The Emperor of Germany was obliged to avoid hostilities with his Protestant subjects at this time, in consequence of the formidable invasions of the Austrian territories by the Turks, who were then the most powerful people in Europe. Thus these constant Turkish invasions were highly favorable to the cause of the Reformation, as the Protestants of Germany refused to assist the Emperor in driving back the infidels, so long as the sword of Catholic vengeance was raised over their heads. The plans of Charles V. for the extermination of heresy were thus frustrated, and he found himself obliged to conclude with the League of Schmalkald the Peace of Nuremberg, in 1532.

The Peace of Nuremberg, which was confirmed by the German imperial Diet at Ratisbon, granted full liberty to preach and publish the doctrines of the Augsburg Confession. By this treaty both parties agreed to refrain from hostilities until a Council of the Church should be assembled to settle the division which thus distracted Christendom. Pope Clement VII. had been vehemently urged to convene such a Council. In the meantime the law proceedings were to cease. While the treaty bound the Protestants, it gave them no assurance for the future; but it afforded great opportunities for the diffusion of the Gospel throughout every portion of Germany.

The Lutheran form of worship was introduced into the Duchy of Wurtemberg. Duke Ulrich of Wurtemberg, a hot-tempered and cruel prince, had with his own hand murdered Hans von Hutten, a knight of his court, from motives of jealousy. He had so ill treated his wife that she fled from him, and he had conquered the imperial city of Reutlingen. He was at length outlawed for disturbing the peace of the country, and was driven from his land and his vassals by the Suabian League.

For fourteen years Ulrich was forced to lead a wandering life in exile from his dukedom, which meanwhile came under the dominion of Austria. At length the Landgrave Philip of Hesse resolved to restore Würtemberg to its exiled duke, who was then living at his court. Philip accordingly led a well-equipped army into Suabia, defeated the Austrian governor at Laufen on the Neckar, and reëstablished Ulrich in the government of his duchy. Ulrich was joyfully welcomed by his subjects, who had forgotten his former tyranny, and who were easily induced to accept the Lutheran doctrines, which Ulrich had embraced during his exile, and which he now caused to be disseminated by Brenz and Schnepf. The Lutheran Church was firmly established in the Duchy of Würtemberg, and the University of Tübingen was one of the most celebrated Lutheran seats of learning.

As we have seen, there were extremists in the new Church. Thomas Münzer's death had not suppressed the doctrines of the Anabaptists, who regarded their own passions as divine inspirations. In spite of the opposition of the leaders of the Reformation, and the discouragement given by all the lawful magistrates, the Anabaptists would make their appearance at various places in Germany. These fanatical doctrines displayed themselves in the most formidable manner in Münster, where the Reformation had made violent headway and driven the bishop and canons into exile.

GERMAN SOLDIERS.

GERMAN LANDSKNECHTS (16TH CENTURY).

GERMAN LANDSKNECHTS (16TH CENTURY).

MAJOR AND LIEUTENANT OF GERMAN LANDSKNECHTS.

THE AGE OF THE LANDSKNECHT.

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It was soon apparent that Rottman, an influential preacher of the Reformation at Münster, was infected with Anabaptist ideas. He was at length aided by Jan Matthys and his countryman and disciple, the tailor, John Bockhold, called John of Leyden; whereupon the Anabaptists acquired such ascendency at Münster that they soon had possession of all the city offices, drove all such of the inhabitants who refused to accept their doctrines out of the city in the midst of winter, and divided their property among themselves. They then established a religious commonwealth in which Jan Matthys had absolute power, introduced the communistic plan of a community of goods, and conducted the defense of the city against the besieging force of the Bishop of Münster.

The fanaticism of the Anabaptists of Münster was heightened when Jan Matthys lost his life in a sally against the besiegers, when John of Leyden was placed at the head of the new commonwealth. John of Leyden selected twelve elders from the most violent of the fanatics, and entrusted them with the government of the city of Münster. Among these, Knipperdoling, who was burgomaster and executioner, acted the most conspicuous part. He introduced the practice of polygamy, and put to death without mercy all who denounced this outrage on Christian morality.

When the fanaticism of the Anabaptists of Münster had reached its height, John of Leyden assumed the title of "King of the New Israel," which he claimed by Divine inspiration. This "tailor king" had for his insignia a crown and a globe suspended by a golden chain. With this insignia, and magnificently attired, he set up the "Chair of David" in the market-place of Münster, where he sat for the administration of justice. He introduced a government in which tyranny and fanaticism were mingled, and in which spiritual pride and carnal lust were associated in the most repulsive manner.

The Anabaptists for a long time made a courageous and successful resistance to the attacks of their imperfectly armed foes. They still resolutely maintained their defense when the besieging army of the Bishop of Münster had been reinforced by imperial troops, and when the beleaguered city began to suffer the horrors of famine. They resisted with the courage of desperation even when the enemy were within the walls of the city. Rottman was slain while fighting. John of Leyden and Knipperdoling were put to death by torture, and their dead bodies were suspended in iron cages on the tower; while many were executed, and the rest were driven into exile. The bishop, the canons and the nobility returned; and Roman Catholicism, which was then reëstablished in all its rigor, has ever since prevailed in Münster.

A few decades later the Anabaptists experienced a complete reformation of their doctrines and discipline under the direction and leadership of Menno Simon; and in that condition, under the name of *Mennonites*, they have continued to the present day, and have been distinguished for their simplicity of dress and manners, and for their rejection of a separate priesthood, of infant baptism, of oaths, of military service and the use of law. Under Menno Simon's direction they abandoned those principles of an earlier period which were in direct antagonism to Christian morality and the public welfare. In their old ancestral homes their descendants lead a quiet life as tenant farmers and peasants. Many are now living in the United States of America.

We have seen that the leading Protestant princes of Germany were the Elector John the Steadfast of Saxony and the Landgrave Philip of Hesse. The Elector John the Steadfast, who succeeded his father Frederick the Wise in 1525, died in 1532, and was succeeded by his son John Frederick. The Duke of Cleves was also one of the greatest of the Protestant princes of Germany; and inherited Guelders and Zutphen, in the Netherlands, through the extinction of the family of Egmont, as well as his father's duchy of Cleves and his mother's inheritance of Berg, Jülich and Ravensberg. His estates lay along the Rhine, from Cologne,

in Germany, to the vicinity of Utrecht, in the Netherlands, and from the Werre to the Meuse. At length Lutheranism was established in the Duchy of Saxony and in the Electorate of Brandenburg, after the death of their last Catholic princes.

The Margrave Albert of Brandenburg had become a Lutheran in the early part of the Reformation; but the *Electoral* branch of the Brandenburg House of Hohenzollern held fast to Roman Catholicism until after the death of the Elector Joachim I., in 1535. His son and successor, Joachim II., received the Eucharist under both Catholic and Lutheran forms at Spandau in 1539; whereupon the Electorate of Brandenburg embraced the Lutheran doctrine. man Catholic Church in the whole North of Germany, and the Protestant worship now prevailed from the Rhine to the Baltic. Conferences between Romish and Protestant divines were held at Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1540, and before the German imperial Diet at Ratisbon in 1541, which brought the two religious parties nearer to agreement, but did not lead to peace.

Henry of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, a cruel and profligate prince, alone adhered to the Romish Church, more from his animosity to the Landgrave Philip of Hesse, the former friend of his youth, than from conviction; but the Protestant faith triumphed even in Wolfenbüttel, when Henry was overpowered by Hessian and Saxon troops and carried

THE REFORMATION—DECIMATING A REGIMENT.

The *Electorate* of Saxony, under the elder or Ernestine branch of the Saxon dynasty, had been the birth-place and early stronghold of the Reformation; but the *Duchy* of Saxony, under the younger or Albertine branch of the same dynasty, had adhered to the Romish Church until after the death of Duke George, in 1539. His brother and successor, Henry the Pious, who was devoted to the Reformation, as was also his son Maurice, established the Lutheran worship in Meissen, Dresden and Leipsic.

The conversion of the Duchy of Saxony and the Electorate of Brandenburg to the Lutheran faith sealed the fate of the Ro- into captivity, after a fierce controversy, alike detrimental to the dignity of princes and to human nature.

Otho Heinrich ordered Osiander, the Nuremberger preacher, to teach the Lutheran doctrines in the Upper Palatinate; and a few weeks before Luther's death the Eucharist was administered in both the Lutheran and Catholic forms in the Palatinate of the Rhine, after the congregation which assembled to hear mass in the Church of the Holy Ghost on January 3, 1546, had sung the Lutheran hymn: "Salvation hath visited us."

Baden-Durlach likewise accepted the Re-

formed confession. Archbishop Hermann, Elector of Cologne, proposed to his Estates a moderate plan of reformation; and the Duke of Cleves seemed disposed to join the League of Schmalkald. The Roman Catholic Church now appeared doomed in Germany if the progress of the Reformation was not forcibly checked. The Emperor Charles V. was convinced that neither imperial Diets nor religious discussions could effect a restoration of the unity of the Church.

Importuned by the Emperor Charles V., Pope Paul III. summoned a Council of the Church to meet at Trent, in the Tyrol, for the purpose of effecting a reconciliation of opposing opinions and restoring the unity of the Church. The Protestants, foreseeing that their doctrines would be condemned in a Council held under the auspices of the Pope, rejected it as partial, and demanded, in its stead, a general synod of the Church of Germany. The Council, however, assembled at Trent, in December, 1545. Dr. Martin Luther died in his native city, Eisleben, in Saxony, on the 18th of February, 1546.

The very first decision of the Council of Trent rendered a reconciliation of opposing opinions hopeless. The Emperor, having concluded a disgraceful peace with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, now determined to crush the Reformation by force of arms; and in the year 1546 the Religious War of Schmalkald broke out between Charles V. and his Protestant German subjects.

The Emperor had for some time been secretly preparing for war by mustering one army in Italy, another in Austria, and a third in the Netherlands. Pope Paul III. aided him by contributions of troops and money, and by authorizing the sale of monastic property in Spain and a tax upon the clergy in the same kingdom.

Though late in discerning the object of the Emperor's preparations, the League of Schmalkald determined to defend the Protestant cause, and promptly put its forces in the field under the command of the Elector John Frederick of Saxony and the Landgrave Philip of Hesse. The Lutheran cities of Germany also raised a large army, and placed it under the command of Sebastian Schärtlin, one of the ablest generals of his time.

Charles V. first broke his coronation-oath by bringing foreign troops into Germany, and then violated the imperial constitution by placing the leaders of the Schmalkald forces and their followers under the ban of the Empire—the highest penalty of treason. This sentence, which could not be legally published without the consent of the imperial Diet, declared the Protestant princes to be rebels and outlaws, absolved their subjects from allegiance, and confiscated all their territories.

The princes of the League of Schmalkald replied to the Emperor's sentence of outlawry by a declaration of war, in which they renounced all allegiance to "Charles of Ghent, pretended Emperor." The army of the Lutheran city of Strasburg hastened to occupy the forts of Ehrenberg and Kufstein, to prevent the Pope's forces from entering Bavaria through the passes of the Tyrol. Thus the Protestant forces were promptly in the field, and they were superior to the Emperor's armies. Both armies were in motion in the summer of 1546, but the first campaign was indecisive.

The hesitation and lack of vigor on the part of the Protestant princes enabled the Emperor to bring his auxiliaries from Italy and to move from his precarious situation at Ratisbon to a more secure position at Ingolstadt, where he was joined by his troops from the Netherlands, thus enabling him to assume the offensive. He marched into Suabia, and was followed thither by the Schmalkald army.

All the efforts of the Protestant princes of Germany were rendered fruitless by the perfidy of one of their own number—Duke Maurice of Saxony. This shrewd young prince had become the Duke of Albertine Saxony upon the death of his father, Henry the Pious, in 1541. Although a Lutheran in belief, Maurice had long withdrawn from the League of Schmalkald, because he envied and hated his cousin John Frederick,

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the Elector of Ernestine Saxony. Although the Landgrave Philip of Hesse was his father-in-law, Maurice formed a secret alliance with the Emperor Charles V., who had in the meantime reposed such confidence in the perfidious prince that he exempted him from the ban of the Empire.

The Lutheran princes had so little suspicion of the treachery of Maurice that his cousin, the Elector John Frederick, had during his absence entrusted him with the defense and administration of the Electorate of Saxony; but as soon as Maurice had been won over by the Emperor's flatteries and promises he betrayed his trust, and seized the Saxon Electorate for himself, with the aid of an army of Bohemians and Hungarians under the Emperor's brother Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria and King of Bohemia and Hungary.

The unexpected defection of Maurice of Saxony utterly ruined the Protestant cause in Germany, and the League of Schmalkald was at the Emperor's mercy. Their common treasury was exhausted; many of their troops deserted for want of pay; and their army was obliged to retreat from Southern Germany.

The triumphant Emperor now required the princes and cities of Southern Germany to submit to the imperial authority and to desert the League of Schmalkald, and the terrified imperial cities complied. Ulm, Heilbronn, Esslingen, Reutlingen, Augsburg, Frankfort, Strasburg and other cities surrendered their artillery, and obtained peace from the Emperor by the payment of heavy fines.

The old Duke Ulrich of Würtemberg humbled himself to the Emperor, paid his contributions of war, and surrendered his most important fortresses to the imperial troops. The old Archbishop Hermann, Elector of Cologne, anathematized by the Pope, threatened by Spanish troops, and finally abandoned by his Estates, relinquished his office in favor of a Catholic, who soon restored the Romish worship in place of Lutheranism. By the spring of 1547 all of Southern Germany was reduced to submission to the Emperor without a battle having been fought.

In the meantime victory had attended the Protestant arms in Northern Germany, where the Elector John Frederick had recovered his confiscated Electorate of Ernestine Saxony by repulsing and dispersing the army of Maurice, after which he overran and conquered Maurice's Duchy of Albertine Saxony as far as Dresden and Leipsic, being everywhere received with acclamations by the population, who were so unanimously on the Protestant side and against their perfidious duke that Maurice dared not levy an army among his own subjects.

Ferdinand of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, met with as little success in raising an army among the Bohemians, whom he offended by his efforts to change the elective kingdom of Bohemia into a hereditary dominion for the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Elector John Frederick might have raised a considerable army in both the Saxonies, bidden defiance to the whole Catholic power, and made himself Emperor of Protestant Germany, if his energy and enterprise had been equal to his general excellence of character.

The defeated Maurice, in his desperate extremity, invoked the Emperor's aid. Charles V. marched into Bavaria, although suffering from the gout, and effected a junction with the forces under Maurice and Ferdinand; after which he hastened into Saxony and came up with the Elector John Frederick, who was posted on the Elbe at Mühlberg, with six thousand troops. The Emperor with his army, twenty-seven thousand strong, crossed the Elbe almost before the eyes of the astonished Elector, who imagined the Emperor to be many miles distant. John Frederick's cavalry was surprised while engaged in a retreat, on a Sunday morning in April, 1547, while the Elector was attending Divine worship; and the Emperor Charles V. won a victory in the battle of Mühlberg, where the Elector John Frederick was wounded in the face and taken prisoner.

With the capitulation of Wittenberg, the

capital of the Saxon Electorate, all of John Frederick's electoral and princely rights were surrendered to the Emperor; but the vanquished Elector's possessions, except a few towns, were divided between his cousin, Duke Maurice, and the Emperor's brother, Ferdinand of Austria, King of Bohemia and Hungary. John Frederick remained in captivity at the Emperor's court, and his children became pensioners of their unfaithful kinsman.

In captivity John Frederick manifested the serenity of soul resulting from a good conscience and a firm trust in God. With the greatest composure he heard the sentence of death that the Emperor had pronounced against him, and without even interrupting the game of chess in which he was engaged. But Charles V. did not venture to carry this terrible sentence into execution. He changed the punishment to imprisonment for life, upon condition that John Frederick should surrender his fortresses to the Emperor and relinquish his electoral dignity and his dominions to Maurice, who was solemnly invested with his new dignity by the Emperor himself, while the deposed and captive John Frederick looked on the ceremony from the windows of his prison. Thus the Electorate of Saxony was transferred from the Ernestine to the Albertine branch of the Saxon dynasty, remaining thenceforth in the latter's possession.

During the spring of 1547 the imperial army under Duke Eric of Brunswick was forced to raise the siege of Bremen, and was defeated near Drachenburg; but the arms of the victorious Protestants were paralyzed by the news of the capitulation of Wittenberg, and all of Northern Germany except Magdeburg was soon reduced to submission to the Emperor.

Charles V. next proceeded to punish the Landgrave Philip of Hesse. The Electors Maurice of Saxony and Joachim II. of Brandenburg interceded for the unfortunate prince, and obtained from the Emperor the assurance "that if he would make an unconditional surrender, apologize for his proceedings and deliver up his castles, he should be punished neither with death nor with perpetual imprisonment." These conditions were subsequently modified during a personal interview, and Maurice of Saxony and Joachim II. of Brandenburg assured the Landgrave Philip of the safety of his person and possessions.

Relying on this assurance and provided with a safe-conduct, Philip of Hesse appeared before the Emperor Charles V. at Halle, begged pardon on his knees in the presence of the brilliant assembly of courtiers, promising to surrender his artillery, demolish all his fortresses but one, release the prisoners whom he had taken, and pay a considerable fine. Notwithstanding his humiliating submission, the terms of the treaty were evaded, and the Landgrave Philip was made a prisoner by the most shameful treachery. Being invited to supper with the Duke of Alva, the commander of the Spanish auxiliaries in the Emperor's service, Philip went to the Castle of Halle, where he was detained as a prisoner in spite of all protestations.

Charles V. could not deny himself the triumph of having the two leading Protestant princes of the Empire in his power. He soon afterward retired from Saxony, taking his two illustrious captives with him. The captivity of the two great Protestant princes of Germany only increased the complaints of the more honest portion of the German nation, and led to a coldness between Maurice of Saxony and the Emperor; but it contributed to overawe resistance in Bohemia, where the Protestant army was soon dispersed. The Bohemian nobles hastened to submit to King Ferdinand, and Prague itself surrendered after a short resistance. The Protestant rebellion in Bohemia resulted in a firmer establishment of the power of the Austrian House of Hapsburg in that kingdom and throughout the German Empire.

Pope Paul III. was alarmed at the Emperor's growing power too late, and had recalled the papal auxiliaries from Germany. By favoring the conspiracy of Fiesco at Genoa, the Pope endeavored to place that republic

under French instead of imperial influence; but the death of the daring conspirator Fiesco, who sought to usurp the office of Doge, frustrated the Pope's design, and the Doria family remained in power in Genoa.

The dissension between the Pope and the Emperor was still more embittered by the murder of the Duke of Parma, a son of Pope Paul III. and an Italian tyrant of the most odious type. Instead of punishing this crime, Charles V. appeared to almost assume responsibility for it by occupying Placentia, the scene of the murder, with imperial troops, and refusing to invest the murdered duke's son, who was his own son-in-law, with the Duchy of Parma.

The Council of Trent assembled on the 13th of December, 1545. The division in the Church was made greater than before; and the Pope, suspecting the Emperor of a design to limit the papal power, removed the Council to Bologna, in Italy; but Charles V. forbade the clergy to leave Trent. The Spanish and Neapolitan prelates obeyed the Emperor by remaining at Trent, while the other thirty-four passed into Italy; and the two Councils, instead of restoring peace and unity to Christendom, began a war of words between each other.

For the purpose of bringing about a restoration of the unity of the Church, the Emperor Charles V. published an edict, which set forth how matters should be conducted until the termination of the Council of Trent. Accordingly three divines, representing respectively the Old Catholic, the New Catholic and the Lutheran parties, were appointed to draw up a Confession of Faith which should reconcile all religious controversies, at least until a more generally accepted Council than those of Trent and Bologna could be convened. This decree, which was called the *Augsburg Interim*, was at first designed for both religious parties, but was afterwards restricted to the Protestants. It permitted to the Lutherans the use of the cup and the marriage of the priests, and indefinite modes of expression were used to approach the Protestant opinions on the doctrines of justification, the mass, etc.; but the old usages were retained in the celebration of Divine worship and in the ceremonies.

In striving to please all parties Charles V. pleased none; and the Augsburg Interim encountered equally violent opposition from the Pope at Rome, from the Calvinists at Geneva, and from the Lutherans at Magdeburg. Nevertheless the Emperor submitted it to the German imperial Diet at Augsburg, in May, 1548, for acceptance without discussion. The Archbishop-Elector of Mayence immediately arose and thanked the Emperor for his efforts to restore peace to the Church, and declared the Interim to be fully approved by the Diet. This unauthorized assumption passed unchallenged on that occasion; but the Elector Maurice of Saxony and his deposed cousin John Frederick soon entered protests, as did also several imperial cities.

The Protestant preachers could not be induced to accept a religion that was offensive to their consciences, by being deprived of their offices, their property or their freedom. The preachers who were thus driven from their posts fled from their homes and firesides by secret paths to the North of Germany, where the Augsburg Interim was wholly rejected. Thus almost four hundred Lutheran preachers became exiles, and most of them found refuge at Magdeburg, which was under the ban of the Empire, as was also Constance, which was the chief center of opposition to the Interim in the South.

The Emperor's brother, Ferdinand of Austria, Bohemia and Hungary, attacked and captured Constance, and annexed it to the dominions of the Austrian House of Hapsburg, in defiance of its ancient privileges. Magdeburg sustained a longer resistance, and became the stronghold of Lutheranism.

Many Lutheran preachers also fled from their homes in Saxony, the cradle of the Reformation, because of their dislike to the Leipsic Interim, which was composed by Melanchthon, who thereby subjected himself to the imputation of weakness and cowardice. These also found refuge at Mag-

deburg, whence many pamphlets, satires, satirical poems and wood-cuts were issued, designed to bring hatred and contempt upon the Augsburg and Leipsic Interims and their authors.

After having, as he imagined, suppressed religious innovations by means of the Augsburg Interim, the Emperor Charles V. proceeded to reform the Catholic Church in Germany by a special edict remarkable for its great wisdom and moderation. The same Diet at Augsburg incorporated the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands with the Germano-Roman Empire under the name of the Circle of Burgundy.

Pope Paul III. died in November, 1549; whereupon the Cardinal Del Monte was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, and assumed the title of Julius III. The new Pope courted the Emperor's favor by reopening the Council of Trent, while Charles V. summoned a new German imperial Diet at Augsburg to devise means for compelling the Protestant party in Germany to submit to the Council's decrees.

As Charles V. advanced in years, and as his constitutional melancholy became settled more heavily over his mind, he more willingly engaged in the work of religious persecution. He had just introduced the Spanish Inquisition into the Netherlands; and his cruel Edict of Brussels threatened the death-penalty against all who should buy, sell, possess or read any Protestant book, or who should meet to study the Scriptures, or speak against any of the Roman Catholic doctrines. Men who were guilty of such offenses were beheaded, while women were either burned or buried alive.

When the Emperor Charles V. seemed to have attained the object of his desires; when everything seemed to insure his elevation to the position of temporal head of all Christendom; and when the Council of the Church had reassembled at Trent, Duke Maurice of Saxony, the prince to whom Charles V. was indebted for the overthrow of the League of Schmalkald, seeing to what dangers the civil and religious liberties of Germany were exposed by the ambitious schemes of the Emperor, and offended because of the captivity of his father-in-law, Philip of Hesse, suddenly formed a secret alliance with King Henry II. of France, the son and successor of Francis I., but concealed his designs until the most favorable time arrived for their execution.

The treaty between Maurice of Saxony and Henry II. of France provided for combined action against the Emperor Charles V. One of the articles authorized the French king to seize the towns of Metz, Toul, Verdun and Cambray, and to hold them as Imperial Vicar—an arrangement by which France held these towns until a recent date. This treaty was signed at the Castle of Chambord, near Blois, by Henry II. of France and the Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, January, 1552.

Maurice immediately granted freedom of religion to the Protestant city of Magdeburg, which he had been for some time besieging; and then, suddenly throwing off the mask, he published a manifesto announcing his intention to maintain the laws and constitution of the German Empire, to protect the Protestant religion, and to liberate the Landgrave of Hesse. In March, 1552, Maurice advanced into Southern Germany with three divisions of his army and took possession of Augsburg.

The Emperor was not alarmed by rumors of Maurice's proceedings, and had sent large detachments of his army into Hungary and Italy, while posting himself with a small guard at Innsbruck, in the Tyrol, to watch the proceedings of the Council of Trent.

Maurice marched into the Tyrol to make the Emperor a prisoner at Innsbruck. He put to flight a small force which the Emperor had collected upon the borders of the Tyrol, and took the pass and castle of Ehrenberg by storm. The Council of Trent was broken up in confusion; and Charles V., who was then afflicted with the gout, escaped with difficulty from Innsbruck in the cold and darkness of a rainy night, being carried in a litter over the snow-covered mountain roads into Carinthia. Before his hasty flight from Innsbruck, Charles

V. released the captive John Frederick of Saxony, whom he had kept a prisoner since the battle of Mühlberg. Maurice might perhaps have taken the Emperor prisoner, but desisted because he "had no cage big enough for such a bird."

In the meantime Maurice's ally, King Henry II. of France, invaded Lorraine and seized the strong towns of Toul, Metz and Verdun, according to treaty; after which he marched into Luxemburg, where he captured several towns, whose plunder he bestowed on his courtiers and higher officers.

Alarmed at the rapid advance of Maurice, the Emperor's brother, Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, immediately concluded with the Protestant princes the Religious Peace of Passau, by which the Protestants of Germany were allowed perfect religious freedom; the Landgrave Philip of Hesse was set at liberty; and a permanent peace and amnesty were decided upon, August, 1552. This was the first victory of the Reformation.

After the conclusion of the Peace of Passau, the forces of the Schmalkaldic League were either disbanded or enlisted in the war against the Turks, which had again broken out in Hungary, through an imaginary slight which the Sultan had inflicted upon Martinuzzi, Bishop of Waradin and guardian of the infant Zapolya. The restless and warlike bishop offered to betray the interests of his ward by securing the principality of Transylvania and the Hungarian crown to King Ferdinand on condition of being made a cardinal and governor of Transylvania.

The Turkish army at once invaded Transylvania, and was opposed by the united forces of Martinuzzi and Castaldo, Ferdinand's general; but the cardinal's arrogance became unendurable; and the general accused him of a secret understanding with the Turks, and caused him to be assassinated, with the consent of King Ferdinand, whose memory is stained with many similar crimes.

The Turks now overran all of Southern Hungary, and took possession of Temesvar and the other fortresses of the Banat; and their political and religious customs remained established there until 1716. The approach of Maurice of Saxony after the Peace of Passau forced the Turks to retire from Erlau, a little town in the North of Hungary, which had withstood three furious assaults from the Ottoman forces, thus holding them at bay until succor could arrive.

Late in 1552 the Emperor Charles V., at the head of an army of a hundred thousand men, undertook the recapture of Metz from the French. That strong fortress was gallantly defended by Francis, Duke of Guise, and all the chivalry of France. The Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, who had hitherto refused to accede to the Peace of Passau, and had been ravaging Western Germany as the French king's ally, now suddenly changed sides, defeated and captured the Duke d'Aumale, and made peace with the Emperor.

Metz was so skillfully and successfully defended by the French garrison under the Duke of Guise that the Emperor Charles V., after a siege of little more than two months, was obliged to raise the siege and to beat a disgraceful retreat, having lost about forty thousand men during the siege, his Spanish and Italian troops having suffered severely from the cold of winter and from the heavy rains which drenched their camp. Metz then became wholly French, and Lutheran books were burned and the Protestant worship was suppressed. That fortified town remained in the possession of France until 1870, when it was recovered by Germany.

In the meantime the Turkish corsair Draghut ravaged the Mediterranean coasts. From every cliff and castle along the Italian shores an anxious lookout was kept for the sails of this marauder, whose approach was too frequently signaled to the terrified inhabitants of the villages by columns of smoke. Besides capturing richly laden merchantmen at sea, the pirates frequently penetrated inland, carrying into slavery all whom they could seize. They attacked the

island of Corsica, which then belonged to Genoa, and took several places; but there the Turks quarreled with their Christian allies, the French, and seized all the Corsicans who were fit to row in their galleys, along with several French nobles, whom they detained for ransom.

As the Margrave Albert of Brandenburg continued his wars and robberies in Lower Saxony, a new league of German princes was formed against him, and Maurice of Saxony marched against him to force him to accept peace. Maurice was victorious in the long and obstinate battle of Sievershausen, in 1553, but received a gun-shot wound, of which he died two days afterward, in the thirty-second year of his age, and in the flower of his manly strength. He was a man of rare qualities, "prudent and secret, enterprising and energetic." His brother Augustus succeeded him as Elector of Saxony; and the Electorate of Saxony remained in the possession of the Albertine branch of the Saxon dynasty until the dissolution of the Germano-Roman Empire in 1806, as did also the Kingdom of Saxony thereafter.

Albert of Brandenburg suffered another defeat near Brunswick, and passed the remaining years of his life as a dependent upon the French court or upon his brother-in-law, the Duke of Baden. Germany enjoyed tranquillity during the last half of the sixteenth century, during which it took little part in general European affairs.

In 1553 Charles V., after a vigorous siege, took the town of Terouenne from the French by assault, destroyed it, and massacred the entire garrison. Hesdin was also taken by the imperial forces; and during the siege of that fortress Emmanuel Philibert, eldest son of the exiled Duke of Savoy, exhibited those remarkable talents which regained for him his father's dominions in due time. The duke died a few months afterward at Vercelli, which the French seized and plundered almost immediately upon his death.

Pope Julius III., died in 1554, and his successor, Marcellus II., soon afterward also passed to his grave; whereupon John Peter Caraffa, who had been distinguished for his piety, learning, and simple and blameless life, was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, and assumed the title of Paul IV. The new Pope was a member of the Oratory of Divine Love, which had been instituted during the pontificate of Leo X. He was also one of the founders of the Theatins. He was seventy-nine years of age when he became Pope. He appeared in public in a magnificent array of velvet and gold, and his daily life was characterized by princely pomp and ceremony. His ruling passion was hatred of the Emperor Charles V., whose jealousy of the Popes he regarded as the cause of the alienation of the Germans from the Romish Church. Paul IV. accordingly hastened to enter into a close alliance with King Henry II. of France, and magnified all his causes of disagreement with the Emperor.

In 1555, in accordance with the terms of the Peace of Passau, Charles V. summoned a Diet of the German Empire at Augsburg; and, after much deliberation, this Diet concluded the *Religious Peace of Augsburg* the same year, by which the Protestants of Germany were allowed perfect liberty of conscience and full toleration for their religion, as well as equal civil and political rights with the Catholics, and to retain possession of the ecclesiastical property which they had seized. A free right of departure was granted to subjects who did not follow the religion of the Electors, and a free toleration was allowed those who remained. Each German state was secured in the right to maintain either the Protestant or the Catholic worship, or to tolerate both or prohibit whichever it pleased.

The demand which the Catholics made that those of the clergy who should in the future become Protestants should lose their offices and incomes occasioned the most vehement disputes. It being impossible to come to an agreement, the point was left undecided, and was admitted as a spiritual reservation into the laws of peace—"a seed of bloody contests."

The failure of the Emperor Charles V. to restore the unity of the Church made him lose his interest in the affairs of the world; and in 1555 and 1556, to the astonishment of the whole world, he followed the example of Diocletian by resigning the scepter of power, abdicating all his thrones and passing the remainder of his life in quiet retirement and monastic penance. The Emperor had this scheme in contemplation for a long time, and his failing health and recent political failures had made him more anxious than ever to carry it out. The recent death of his mother, Queen Joanna, whom the Spaniards had always regarded as their sovereign, made it possible for Charles to dispose of the Spanish crowns. In hours of prayer he imagined that he heard his mother's voice calling him away, and he determined to pass his remaining days in retirement.

With this object in view he called his son Philip, who had married Queen Mary of England, to Brussels and there invested him with the Grand Mastership of the Order of the Golden Fleece. Then, in the presence of all the Estates of the Netherlands, October 25, 1555, the Emperor abdicated the sovereignty of the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, which he conferred upon his son PHILIP II., reviewed the events of his reign, implored the solemn assembly to pardon all the errors which he might have committed, and charged his son to defend the Catholic religion, to do justice and to love his subjects. His sister Mary, the widow of King Louis II. of Hungary, resigned the regency of the Netherlands at the same time; and Philip II. appointed the Duke of Savoy as her successor.

In the presence of all the Spanish nobles in the Netherlands, assembled in the same hall several weeks afterward, Charles V. abdicated the crowns of Spain, Naples and Sicily, and the sovereignty of Spanish America, all of which were also conferred upon Philip II.

In the autumn of 1556 Charles V. abdicated the German imperial crown in favor of his brother Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria, and King of Bohemia and Hungary. This latter abdication was addressed to the Electors, princes and Estates of Germany, and was formally accepted by the German imperial Diet at Frankfort in 1558, when Ferdinand was chosen Emperor, after pledging himself to observe the Peace of Religion —a pledge which he honestly fulfilled. Thenceforth the House of Hapsburg remained divided into a Spanish and an Austrian branch.

Immediately after committing to his most trusted friends, the Prince of Orange and Chancellor Seld, the document by which he abdicated the imperial crown of Germany, Charles proceeded to Spain, accompanied by his two sisters, the dowager queens of Hungary and France. He retired to the province of Estremadura, in the West of Spain, passing the remaining two years of his life in the residence which he had built near the monastery of San Yuste, on the pleasant declivity of a hill, surrounded by plantations of trees. He passed his retirement in religious devotion, in cultivating his own garden and orchard, and in mechanical inventions.

The ex-Emperor spent many hours with the Italian mechanician Torriano in making clocks and watches or in other delicate machinery. Having failed in repeated attempts to make two watches run exactly alike, he is said to have exclaimed: "I cannot make two watches run alike, and yet, fool that I was, I thought of governing so many nations of different languages and religions, and living in different climes!"

Two years after his abdication the ex-Emperor felt his end approaching, and was seized with a fancy for going through the ceremonies of his own funeral. He attired himself in monkish costume, and joined in the mournful chants of the brotherhood of monks around an empty coffin which was placed in the convent chapel. This solemn farce was turned into a reality in less than a month; as the great ex-monarch breathed his last September 21, 1558, at the age of fifty-eight, worn out by toils of state rather than by years.

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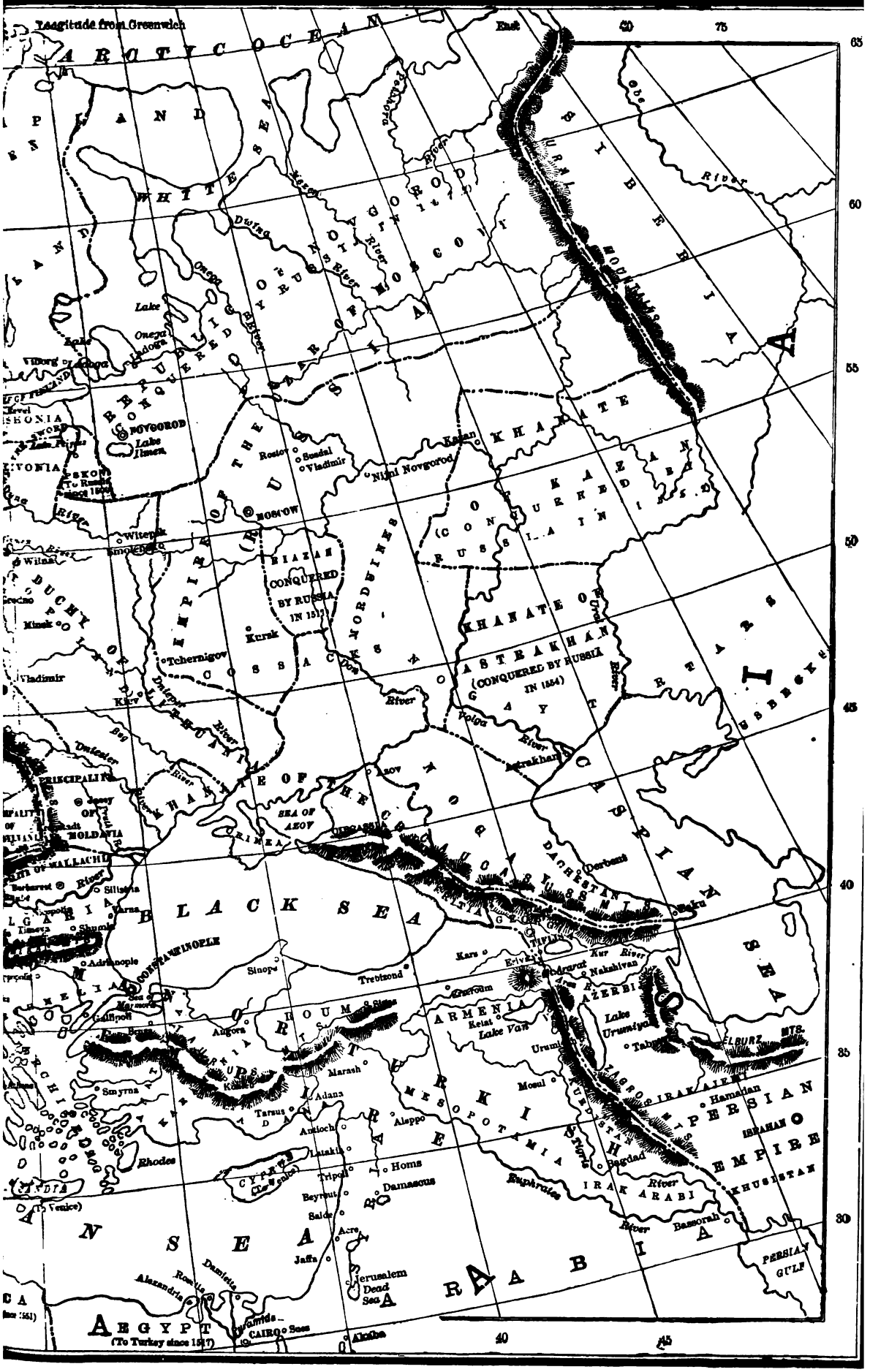
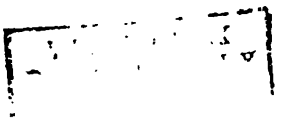
MAP OF
EUROPE
DURING THE REFORMATION
ABOUT 1500 A.D.
By I.S.Clare
SCALE OF MILES
ICELAND (To Denmark)
FAROE ISLES (To Denmark)
SHETLAND ISLES
ORKNEY ISLES
HEBRIDES ISLES
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY OF BISCAY
English Channel
Channel Isles (To England)
Scilly Isles
St.George's Chan.
Irish Sea
SKAGER RACK
BALTIC SEA
GULF OF BOTHNIA
Heligoland (To Denmark)
EDINBURGH
DUBLIN
LONDON
PARIS
MADRID
ROME
NAPLES (TO SPAIN)
VENICE
FLORENCE
TUSCANY
PAPAL STATES
REP. SAN MARINO
MODENA
TYROL
SWITZERLAND
WESTPHALIA
HESSE
BERLIN
BRANDENBURG
STOCKHOLM
COPENHAGEN
Upsala
Bergen
Calmar
Bornholm
Rugen
Lubec
Hamburg
Bremen
Cologne
Leipsic
Wittenberg
Prague
Breslau
Posen
Cracow
Presburg
Vienna
Pesth
Mohacs
SLAVONIA
SERVIA
Belgrade
Widin
Ragusa
Cattaro
Scutari
Durazzo
ALBANIA
Otranto
Brindisi
Taranto
Benevento
Naples
Corfu
SICILY (To Spain)
Palermo
Messina
Catania
Syracuse
Reggio
Malta (To Knights of St.John, 1522-1798)
CORSICA
SARDINIA (To Spain)
Balearic Isles (to Spain)
Minorca
Majorca
Iviza
ALGIERS
Constantina
Bona
TUNIS
Kairwan
KINGDOM OF ALGIERS (To Turkey, 1520-1830)
EMPIRE OF MOROCCO
ATLAS MOUNTAINS
Fez
Tangier
Ceuta
Tlemsen
Oran
TRIPOLI
Benghazi
Knights of St.John, 1522-1551 (To Turkey since 1551)
AFRICA
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Straits of Gibraltar
Seville
Granada
Malaga
Cordova
Carthagena
Valencia
Toledo
Lisbon
Oporto
Coimbra
Braganza
Santiago
Leon
Valladolid
Burgos
Salamanca
Olmedo
Saragossa
Barcelona
Pampeluna
Bayonne
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Narbonne
Montpellier
Nismes
Avignon
Marseilles
Lyons
Poitiers
Limoges
Tours
Orleans
Nantes
Brest
La Rochelle
Troyes
Dijon
Chalons
Rheims
St.Quentin
Havre
Cherbourg
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
KINGDOM OF ENGLAND
WALES
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
KINGDOM OF IRELAND
GERMAN EMPIRE
KINGDOM OF POLAND
KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
HUNGARY
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
LAPMARK
York
Lincoln
Exeter
Oxford
Cambridge
Northampton
Shrewsbury
Leicester
Richmond
Lancaster
Flodden-Field
Dunbar
Galway
Limerick
Waterford
Haarlem
Leyden
Rotterdam
Utrecht
Munster
Treves
Metz
Ulm
Innsbruck
Stralsund
Tannenberg
Thorn
Warsaw
Oesel
Gothland
Oeland
Aland Isl.
West
Mt. Hecla
Reikiavik
Mediterranean


Longitude from Greenwich
East
20
75
65
ARCTIC OCEAN
FINLAND
WHITE SEA
Gulf of Kandalaksha
Kola Peninsula
Archangel
Onega River
Dwina River
Mezen River
Pechora River
Ural Mts.
SIBERIA
60
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
Volga River
Vologda
Vyatka
Kama River
Viborg
Kexholm
ESTHONIA
LIVONIA
Reval
Dorpat
Pskov
Lake Peipus
NOVGOROD
Lake Ilmen
Rostov
Suzdal
Vladimir
Nizni Novgorod
Kazan
KHANATE OF KAZAN
(CONQUERED BY RUSSIA IN 1552)
55
MOSCOW
Witepsk
Smolensk
Wilna
Minsk
Vladimir
RIAZAN
CONQUERED BY RUSSIA IN 1517
Kursk
Tchernigow
Kiev
Dniepr River
Dniester River
Bug River
Volga River
Astrakhan
KHANATE OF ASTRAKHAN
(CONQUERED BY RUSSIA IN 1554)
50
45
BESSARABIA
PRINCIPALITY OF MOLDAVIA
PRINCIPALITY OF WALLACHIA
Bucharest
Silistria
Varna
Ismail
Adrianople
CONSTANTINOPLE
Gallipoli
Sea of Marmora
Sea of Azov
CRIMEA
Perekop
Isthmus of Perekop
Sea of Azov
Don River
Sea of Azov
Taganrog
Derbent
Baku
CASPIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
Sinope
Trebizond
Kars
Erivan
Erzeroum
Nakshivan
Kur River
Araxes River
Lake Urumiya
Tabriz
ELBURZ MTS.
Angora
Smyrna
Marash
Kaisarieh
Mosul
Hamadan
Tarsus
Adana
Antioch
Aleppo
Lake Van
Euphrates River
Tigris River
Bagdad
Rhodes
Cyprus
Laiakia
Tripoli
Homs
Damascus
Beyrut
Saide
Acre
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Dead Sea
Ispahan
KHUSISTAN
Bassorah
PERSIAN GULF
Damietta
Rosetta
Alexandria
Pyramids
CAIRO
Suez
Akaba
AEGYPT
(To Turkey since 1517)
ARABIA
40
45



SECTION IX.—LUTHERANISM AND CALVINISM.

IN GERMANY, the birth-place of the Reformation, the Lutheran form of worship strove long with the Catholic for the mastery. Lutheranism gradually spread from Saxony and Hesse over the neighboring counties, attained the ascendency in the North of Germany, gained great headway in Suabia and Franconia, and extended itself from Strasburg into Alsace and Lorraine.

In the early part of the Reformation the doctrines of Luther had penetrated to the region of the Vistula and the Baltic shores, where Albert of Brandenburg, the Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, pressed upon by the Poles and deserted by the Emperor and the Empire, had become a Lutheran, put an end to the Teutonic Order as a sovereign power by a treaty with King Sigismund I. of Poland in 1525, and received the eastern part of Prussia as a hereditary duchy under the suzerainty of the King of Poland. His children inherited the Prussian duchy, which finally came into the possession of the Electoral branch of the Brandenburg House of Hohenzollern, and became independent of Poland. In Courland and Livonia the same thing occurred with the Head of the Order of the Sword. Lutheranism was also established in the Scandinavian kingdoms, as we shall presently see.

The Catholic form of worship was zealously championed by the Dukes of Bavaria, by the royal Austrian House of Hapsburg, by the spiritual Electors of the German Empire, and by the prince-bishops. Ingolstadt was the great seat of Catholic learning in Germany. But the Emperors Ferdinand I. and Maximilian II. both sought not to offend the consciences of their subjects, thus allowing Lutheranism to gain many converts in the hereditary Austrian territories. The Protestants soon obtained religious toleration, and erected several churches in the archduchy of Austria and in the duchies of Carinthia and Styria. The Reformation made such rapid strides in Hungary and Transylvania that the Protestants outnumbered the Catholics, and acquired religious freedom and equal political rights with their opponents. The old Hussites of Bohemia mainly embraced the Lutheran doctrines. Notwithstanding the many treaties which guaranteed the rights of the Protestants in the Austrian dominions, those rights were disregarded by later rulers, who reëstablished the supremacy of the Catholic State Church.

The Reformed Church which Ulrich Zwingli originated in Switzerland also spread itself into Germany at an early period. Zwingli's doctrines were only accepted and supported by a few towns in the South of Germany, until John Calvin, the refugee French Reformer in Geneva, adopted Zwingli's principles and fashioned them into a complete system of doctrine by uniting them with his own views, after which the reformed Church in Germany obtained numerous accessions. Duke Frederick III. of Baden introduced this system into his own dominions from the Palatinate, and in 1559 he ordered Ursínus and Olevianus to draw up the *Heidelberg Catechism*, a widely extended compend of the Zwinglian and Calvinistic doctrines.

The Zwinglian and Calvinistic Church was also introduced into Hesse, Bremen and Brandenburg. Even Melanchthon and his disciples—called *Philippists* and *Cryptocalvinists*—inwardly accepted Calvin's views as correct. Melanchthon so embittered his last days by promulgating these opinions that he died calumniated and full of sorrow, in 1560, and his disciples in Saxony suffered persecution and imprisonment. An effort was made to restore harmony among the Protestants of Germany by the *Form of Concord*, a confession of faith subscribed by ninety-six of the Lutheran Estates of the Empire about the year A. D. 1580; but its only result was to confirm and aggravate the

dissensions and animosities between the Lutheranists and Calvinists of Germany. Thus, in the century of the Reformation, German Protestantism was divided between the Lutheran and the German Reformed Church.

Switzerland was divided between Protestantism and Catholicism, and the Zwinglian system which prevailed in the greater German cantons very nearly resembled the Calvinistic doctrine which was supreme in French Switzerland; so that Zwingli is considered the founder of the German Reformed Church, whose creed is based on the Heidelberg Catechism, the same as the Lutheran creed is based on the Augsburg Confession.

John Calvin, or Jean Chauvin—the French Reformer—fled from persecution in France, to Geneva, in Switzerland; where he established a sort of theocracy, and endeavored to bring Christianity to its primitive simplicity in ceremonies and worship, excluding images, ornaments, organs, candles and crucifixes from the churches, and allowing no church feast but a rigorously-observed Sabbath, to be spent in prayer, preaching, and singing of Psalms, which Calvin's faithful fellow-minister, Theodore Beza, had translated into French. Calvin taught the creed of the great Christian Father, St. Augustine, that man is incapable of himself to do good and partake of salvation, and that the future destiny of every human creature is preordained from time of birth. Although Calvin had fled from persecution himself and had severely denounced religious intolerance on the part of the Catholics, he was very intolerant himself and became a violent persecutor, causing Servetus to be burned at the stake for denying the doctrine of the Trinity and Christ's divinity. Calvinism was generally rejected by the higher orders, because it opposed many prevalent amusements, such as the theater, dancing, and the more refined pleasures of society. Like the ancient lawgivers, Calvin exercised unbounded influence at Geneva, in civil and religious affairs, and in education and manners, until his death in 1564.

Calvin was a man of great intellect and moral power. He was severe to himself and to others, and hostile to all earthly pleasures. His doctrine is impressed with his character—severity and simplicity. He acquired a command over men by the reverence due to his strong and pure will.

JOHN CALVIN.

The constitution of the Calvinistic Church is a republican synodical government. The congregation, represented by freely chosen *elders*, or *presbyters*, exercises the power of

the Church, elects the ministers, watches over morals by means of the elders, administers the Church discipline and punishments, and attends to the distribution of alms. The ministers and a part of the elders form the synod, which gives the Church laws to the different congregations.

Calvinism spread rapidly from Geneva into the South of France, into Scotland, and into the Northern Netherlands. In France the Calvinists were called *Huguenots*, and were rigorously persecuted, their ministers being given to the flames. In Scotland they were called *Presbyterians*, because the affairs of their Church were managed by elders, or *presbyters*, elected by the congregations. The apostle of Calvinism in Scotland was the celebrated John Knox, who succeeded in establishing that faith as the state-religion of Scotland. In the Northern Netherland provinces Calvinism soon obtained a foothold, and became the state-religion of the new Duch Republic (Holland); and in 1618 the views of the Arminians, who did not fully accept Calvin's doctrine of predestination, were condemned as heretical by the Synod of Dort, which upheld St. Augustine's doctrine of man's inability of himself to do good and be saved, and punished the Arminian leaders by death or imprisonment.

SECTION X.—THE CATHOLIC CHURCH AND THE JESUITS.

THUS by the middle of the sixteenth century the Church of Rome had been repudiated by the Teutonic nations of Europe, except by Austria and some of the other German states. Such was the result of Tetzel's sale of indulgences, when the Romish Church and its agents sought to give practical force to the sentiment expressed in the following lines in German:

> "*So wie das geld im kasten klingt,*
> *Die seele aus dem fegfeuer springt.*"
>
> "As in the box the money rings,
> The soul from purgatory springs."

The Reformation was checked in Italy and Spain, partly by the character of the people, and partly by the severity of the Inquisition; many of the followers of the new doctrines dying in dungeons or at the stake, while many illustrious authors and scholars who advocated the new movement sought refuge in exile. Some embraced principles which even the Reformers rejected as heretical. The two Italian relatives Socínus denied Christ's divinity and the doctrine of the Trinity, views advocated by the Arians of the early Christian Church and by the modern Unitarians. The Spaniard Servetus held heterodox opinions respecting the Trinity; for which he perished at the stake at Geneva, through Calvin's instrumentality, in 1553, as we have noticed.

All the Popes during the Reformation made strenuous efforts to exterminate heresy; but the twice-interrupted Council of Trent, which first assembled in 1545, and which opened its third session in January, 1562, adjourned finally December 4, 1563, without effecting the desired result, although the Catholic Church was somewhat purified of its corruptions.

The Catholics regard the resolutions of the Council of Trent as their own Reformation, and these resolutions constitute the basis of the Roman Catholic Church. This ecclesiastical assembly recognized as infallible the religions doctrines that had hitherto been considered orthodox, and embodied these doctrines in carefully defined propositions. This Council established a purer code of morals, improved the Church discipline, and inaugurated a more stringent supervision of the clergy. The work of the Council of Trent was gradually accepted in all Roman Catholic countries, and is the final conclusion of the Catholic doctrine. In this manner every attempt at innovation

was prevented, and Roman Catholicism was impressed with the character of stability; while development and progress is the essence of Protestantism.

Luther's work was followed by gratifying results even for the Romish Church. The Protestant Reformation was also a Catholic Reformation. The formidable and growing opposition from without forced the Church of Rome to reform itself within, in order to preserve its existence. Thus, while religious beliefs and principles had undergone a remarkable transformation, especially in Northern and Central Europe, a Catholic reaction, or counter-revolution, had already commenced, which arrested the progress of the Reformation, and neutralized its results in Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Italy and Spain, or, in other words, in all the countries subject to either the Austrian or the Spanish branch of the House of Hapsburg. This result was partly due to the powerful moral reaction felt almost equally within and without the Romish Church against the old-time venality and corruption of the clergy. Many virtuous prelates—the greatest and best of whom was Charles Borromeo, Archbishop of Milan—restored the respectability of the Church; and ever since no Pope has disgraced his station by the shameful iniquities of Alexander VI. or the refined voluptuousness of Leo X. As the reforms for which Wickliffe, Huss, Luther, Melanchthon, Zwingli and Calvin had striven were thus effected, the necessity for a separation from the old established Church became less strongly felt.

The efforts of the Popes to suppress the Reformation, or to arrest its progress, found their chief support in the Order of Jesuits, which was founded in the year 1540 by the enthusiastic and chivalrous Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish nobleman. During the healing of the wound which he had received at the defense of Pampeluna in 1521, his mind was turned to serious reflection by reading the Lives of the Saints. He accordingly renounced the military profession, and with prayers and penance made a toilsome pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulcher at Jerusalem, but returned to his native land at the command of the papal legate.

So ignorant was Ignatius Loyola at the age of thirty-three that he then had to begin his elementary education. With incredible perseverance he acquired the education which he needed, beginning at a school at Barcelona, and completing his studies in the great universities of Alcala, Salamanca and Paris. At each of these places he labored to convert the students to a religious life. Among his early converts at Paris were Peter Faber, Francis Xavier and Peter Laynez.

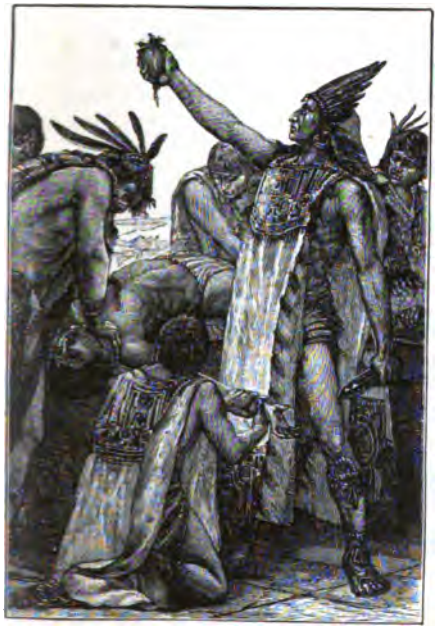
These all went through the "Spiritual Exercises" with him, and he made them fast three days and three nights at a time. In 1534, when Loyola was in his forty-third year, he and six of his young disciples at Paris took upon themselves the three monastic vows of poverty, chastity and obedience, along with a fourth vow to devote themselves to the service of Christ by going as missionaries wherever the Pope might send them. They were to complete their studies first, and the vow was to take effect in three years.

In 1540 Ignatius Loyola and his disciples submitted to Pope Paul III. the rules which they had adopted and the purpose to which they had devoted their lives. The Pope approved the new institution, which became incorporated under the name of the *Society of Jesus*. In 1541 Ignatius Loyola was elected the first General of the Order; but his constitution was not approved until the election of his successor, Peter Laynez, one of his earliest disciples and also a Spaniard. The Pope endowed the *Jesuits*, as the members of the new Order were called, with great privileges.

The Jesuits adopted a monarchical and oligarchical government; and the General of the Order, residing at Rome, knew each member's qualifications and work. The Order was divided into provinces; and the provincial, as well as the local superiors, were appointed by the General, who was aided in the government of the Order by assistants. The Provincials who governed the districts or provinces made reports to the

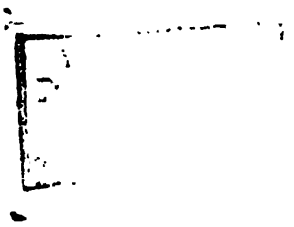
Bishop in the Pluviale—Bishop in the Casula.

Papal Swiss Guard—Pope in Ornate—Pope in House Costume.



Aztec Priests Sacrificing a Victim.

German Citizen's Dress (first third of 16th Century).



General at regular intervals concerning the conduct and character of the members. In case the General proved unworthy of his trust, the assistants could convoke a general assembly of deputies to investigate charges, and even to proceed to depose or expel the offender.

The four classes into which this powerful religious association was divided were: 1. The Professed, who, after going through the other stages, had taken all vows; 2. The Coadjutors, who aided the Professed in teaching, preaching, and the direction of souls; 3. The Scholastics, employed in study or teaching; 4. The Novices, who passed two years in spiritual exercises, such as prayer and meditation.

Strict obedience and perfect subordination in everything compatible with the laws and precepts of Christianity became the soul of this famous religious society. Its members were obliged to disconnect themselves with the rest of the world, their families and friends. Those intending to enter the Order were required to pass through a long period of severe probation, during which their talents and dispositions were carefully examined. Every member of the Order was required to be in the hands of his superior "like a staff in the hands of an old man," or "as clay in the hands of the potter." The subordination was complete in all the gradations. Ignatius Loyola's military training caused him to constitute his society like soldiers in an army:

> "Not theirs to reason why,
> Not theirs to make reply,
> Theirs but to do and die."

The chief object of the Jesuits was to counteract Protestantism and to suppress the spirit of inquiry awakened by the Reformation. By persecution and seduction they endeavored to win Protestants over to Catholicism; and, by getting the education of youth into their hands, they sought to bring up the young in the doctrines of the Romish Church. The Order acquired immense wealth by donations and legacies, and was thus enabled to establish schools and colleges in every Catholic country of Europe, which attracted the necessitous by imparting instruction gratuitously.

The outward and immediate success of the Society of Jesus justified the hopes of its founder and the wisdom of his plans, as the Order soon spread over Catholic Europe, and many of its members were engaged in remote quarters of the globe in proclaiming the Gospel to the heathen. At the time of Ignatius Loyola's death, in 1556, the Jesuits had thirteen provinces, mainly in Spain, Portugal and Italy. Their influence was very great; as they took possession of the pulpits, schools and confessionals wherever they established themselves. They were the most accomplished and popular preachers, and occupied anew the deserted churches. They supplanted other priests in the care of consciences; and, as they taught gratuitously and well, their schools were soon filled with the children of all classes.

The efforts of the Jesuits to counteract the Reformation were prosecuted zealously and effectively, contributing immensely in Spain, Italy and Germany to arrest and prevent the spread of Protestantism. Distinguished for their learning, their zeal and their disinterestedness, devoting themselves in the pulpit and in the school with singleness of purpose to the fulfillment of the mission to which they had consecrated their lives, their influence was everywhere felt as a formidable adversary to the Protestant doctrine.

Instead of wasting their time in austerities, as did the older monastic orders, the Jesuits were encouraged to cultivate all their intellectual faculties by the liberal pursuits of art, science and general literature. As they thus became the most accomplished instructors of youth. they acquired a controlling influence over the leading minds of Europe during the most impressible years of life—an influence clearly discernible in the later policy of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

The General of the Order had the most absolute authority in assigning every mem-

ber the work for which he was adapted and qualified. While the superior talents of some of the Order directed the subtle diplomacy of European courts, the pious zeal of others found active employment in the most toilsome and self-denying missions among the forests of America or in the crowded cities of China and Japan.

Jesuit missionaries converted many of the American Indians to Christianity, and were pioneers in the exploration of the Great Lakes of North America. In Paraguay Jesuit missionaries gained possession of the civil government of the country, converted and civilized the Indians, and rescued them from the system of slavery under which they had been reduced by the Spaniards and the Portuguese, at the same time teaching them agriculture, building, and the arts of social life, and inducing them to exclude all other influences.

The most illustrious of Jesuit missionaries was the celebrated St. Francis Xavier, who began his career in the East Indies in 1542, who preached in Goa, Ceylon, Malacca, Cochin-China and Japan, and who baptized hundreds of thousands in those distant lands, dying on his way to China, in 1551, after a missionary career of nine years. Another was Robert de Nobili, who went to India as a missionary in 1605, arriving at Goa, where St. Francis Xavier had landed sixty-three years before, and who made converts to Christianity by disguising himself as a Brahman, in this way practicing Ignatius Loyola's doctrine that the end justifies the means.

The Jesuits encountered great opposition and fierce abuse from other Catholic orders whom they supplanted, as well as from Protestants. They were accused of all manner of false beliefs and wicked actions. Some of these accusations were well founded, but others were merely the result of the jealousy of their rivals. The system of studies which they introduced into their schools took Europe by surprise, and involved them in a struggle with the Sorbonne of Paris and with the University of Coimbra in Portugal and that of Salamanca in Spain. They were vehemently assailed, their doctrines and practices were bitterly denounced, and their Order was often suppressed even in Catholic countries and by Catholic rulers.

Says Macaulay: "With what vehemence, with what policy, with what exact discipline, with what dauntless courage, with what self-denial, with what forgetfulness of the dearest private ties, with what intense and stubborn devotion to a single end, with what unscrupulous laxity and versatility in the choice of means, the Jesuits fought the battles of their Church, is written in every page of the annals of Europe during several generations. The history of the Order of Jesus is the history of the great Catholic reaction against Protestantism in the seventeenth century."

SECTION XI.—THE REFORMATION IN SCANDINAVIA.

SWEDEN.

A COMPLETE political and religious revolution occurred in the three Scandinavian kingdoms in the sixteenth century. The tyrant Christian II. of Denmark—"the Nero of the North"—was the last king who reigned over the three Scandinavian kingdoms under the Union of Calmar. He irritated the Danish and Swedish nobility to such an extent by his severity and cruelty that insurrections broke out in Denmark and Sweden at the same time—a result which led to the dissolution of the Union of Calmar and the establishment of Lutheranism in the three Scandinavian kingdoms.

The valiant GUSTAVUS VASA, a brave youth, endowed with the wisdom and valor of his relatives, the Stures, inaugurated the

political and ecclesiastical revolution in Sweden, and founded a dynasty of vigorous monarchs, who raised Sweden to the ascendency in the North. He was carried into Denmark as a hostage by Christian II.; but he soon escaped to Lübeck, where he was provided with money and encouraged with promises of the liberation of his native land.

In 1520 Christian II. caused ninety-four Swedish nobles to be perfidiously massacred at Stockholm. Among these massacred nobles was the heroic Gustavus Vasa's father. This atrocity excited universal horror in Sweden. In the same year the brave Gustavus Vasa landed on the shores of Sweden. In the midst of a thousand perils and adventures, he escaped the pursuing emissaries of Christian II., who were constantly at his heels, until he found aid and refuge among the rude inhabitants of the mining region in the North of Dalecarlia.

Gustavus Vasa aroused the Dalecarlians to an effort to recover the independence of Sweden, and with a force of hardy peasants he conquered Falun, repulsed the Danish troops and their allies, and took Upsala. His fame and his call to freedom soon resounded through all lands and brought many warriors to his side. He obtained troops, money and artillery from the Lübeckers, and forced the Danish garrison to retreat. After being elected King of Sweden by the Diet of Strengnas, he entered Stockholm in triumph, in June, 1523, thus restoring the independence of Sweden.

The restored Kingdom of Sweden remained an elective monarchy for twenty years, but in 1544 the Swedish Diet declared the Swedish crown to be hereditary in the male line of the Vasa family. As the possessions of the Swedish throne had been so dilapidated by neglect as to be inadequate to support the expenditure, the new royal dignity could only be maintained with honor by augmenting the royal revenue, and for this the Reformation afforded a welcome opportunity.

The Swedish people, instructed in the Lutheran doctrines by the brothers Olaus and Laurentius Petri, gladly embraced the Lutheran faith; and, as the clergy in Sweden had sided with the Danes during the war for Swedish independence, the Swedish Diet placed the possessions of the clergy at Gustavus Vasa's disposal, in 1527. Thus supported by the Diet's resolution, the new Swedish king gradually introduced Lutheranism into his kingdom, and confiscated most of the possessions of the Romish Church in Sweden for the benefit of the Swedish crown. As the Swedish nobility were enriched by this proceeding they supported the king in his policy. After a long resistance, the Swedish bishops yielded to the new system, remained as Estates of the kingdom and heads of the Church, but were dependent upon their king and held in check by the consistories.

Gustavus Vasa, who sought to make Sweden prosperous by good and wise laws and by encouraging trade and industry, died in 1560, after a reign of thirty-seven years; and the dynasty which he founded occupied the throne of Sweden for almost three centuries, A. D. 1523–1818. Evil times came upon Sweden during the reigns of his sons, who successively occupied the Swedish throne.

ERIK XIV., the first son and successor of Gustavus Vasa, was of so passionate a disposition that he finally became hopelessly insane; and while in that condition he murdered several of the Sture family with his own hand, and caused all the Swedish nobles to tremble in fear of a similar fate. His brothers placed him in confinement, and finally poisoned him in 1568.

JOHN III., another son of Gustavus Vasa, then became King of Sweden. This monarch was a weak-minded sovereign of vascillating disposition. Being led astray by his wife, who was a rigid Catholic and a Polish princess, and by a Jesuit who lived secretly at Stockholm as an ambassador, John III. endeavored to reëstablish the Catholic religion in Sweden, and consented that his son Sigismund, who was to be King of Sweden and Poland, should be educated as a Catholic. This scheme failed, because of the resistance of the Swedish people to

the Catholic ceremonies. John III. himself afterward repented of his project, when his second wife exerted herself in favor of Lutheranism.

John III. died in 1592; and his son SIGISMUND, who was King Sigismund III. of Poland, became King of Sweden. Sigismund's attachment to the Roman Catholic Church proved very detrimental to his reign in Sweden. He stubbornly refused to comply with the resolution of the Swedish Diet that the Evangelical Lutheran Church should be the state religion of Sweden and alone tolerated in that kingdom. Thereupon the Diet appointed his uncle Charles, Duke of Sudermania, also a son of Gustavus Vasa, to administer the government of Sweden as regent, A. D. 1598.

Sigismund endeavored vainly to maintain his right to the crown of Sweden by force of arms. He was defeated by his uncle; whereupon the Swedish Diet demanded that he either renounce popery and govern Sweden in person, or send his son to Sweden so that the prince might be educated in the Lutheran religion. As Sigismund refused to comply with this demand he was deposed in 1599; whereupon his uncle, the Duke of Sudermania, was made King of Sweden with the title of CHARLES IX.; and a new law of succession secured the Swedish crown to his family.

DENMARK AND NORWAY.

In the meantime, while Lutheranism was thus triumphant in Sweden, the Lutheran Church was also established in Denmark. The tyrant CHRISTIAN II., who was at first favorable to the Reformation, was deposed by the Danish Diet in 1523, the same year in which Gustavus Vasa became King of Sweden; whereupon his uncle Frederick, Duke of Holstein, became King FREDERICK I. of Denmark. Frederick I., who was acknowledged as king by the Danish nobility and people, supported the Lutheran doctrines, in order to strengthen himself against his dethroned rival.

The deposed Christian II. then became a firm adherent of the Romish Church, in order to gain the support of the Pope and of the Emperor Charles V. in his efforts to recover possession of the crowns of Denmark and Sweden. In the meantime, while Frederick I., at the Diet of Odensee, admitted Protestants in Denmark to equal civil rights with Catholics, and made the Danish Church independent of the Pope, Christian II. made an attack upon Denmark from Norway; but he was taken prisoner, and was incarcerated in a gloomy tower for sixteen years with a Norwegian dwarf as his only companion.

Frederick I. died in 1534, after a reign of ten years, and was succeeded on the Danish throne by his son CHRISTIAN III., during whose reign the Lutheran Church was fully established in Denmark. Most of the possessions of the Romish clergy in Denmark were confiscated, and became the property of the Danish crown and nobility; and the Danish bishops, whose titles were retained, became utterly dependent upon their government. Lutheranism was quietly established in Norway by the peasantry, but the Protestant party in Iceland fell with the sword in their hands. The Danish nobility, like the Swedish, acquired great wealth, power and privileges by the Reformation.

Christian III. of Denmark and Norway died in 1559, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK II., who reduced the free people of the Republic of Ditmarsen under the dominion of Denmark, after they had successfully resisted the Danes for several centuries. Denmark finally acknowledged Sweden's independence by the Peace of Stettin, in 1570, which closed the Northern Seven Years' War, but left the seven southern provinces of Sweden in the possession of the King of Denmark. The reign of Frederick II. was prosperous, and was celebrated for the progress of art and science, which were now cultivated in Denmark for the first time. The great astronomer, Tycho Brahe, founded an observatory at Uranienborg. Frederick II. died in 1588, and was succeeded on the throne of Denmark and Norway by his son CHRISTIAN IV., who reigned sixty years.

SECTION XII.—THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND.

THERE was great joy in England when, upon the death of Henry VII. in 1509, his son HENRY VIII. ascended the English throne; as his father had incurred the hatred of the English people by his jealousy, his severity and his avarice. The new king was only eighteen years of age, but he gave the most promising hopes of making a good sovereign and of having a happy and glorious reign. The contending claims of the rival Houses of York and Lancaster were united in his person, so that he received the cordial and united support of both. His father had left him an enormous treasury, and England was free from foreign and civil wars. In short, no other King of England ever began to reign under circumstances more peculiarly favorable than Henry VIII.

The young king possessed the qualities essential to win popularity; as he was handsome, carefully educated and highly accomplished, besides being energetic and of a frank and hearty disposition. He was likewise fond of chivalrous amusements and endowed with great powers of mind, while being also a hearty friend of the New Learning and inspired with a sincere desire to rule with justice. But his disposition changed much as he advanced in age; as his naturally violent and impulsive temper, which he was unable to bring under control, became malignant and unrelenting with opposition; and he gradually became fiercer and more tyrannical.

A few weeks after his accession Henry VIII. celebrated his marriage with the Princess Catharine of Aragon, and the two were crowned together as King and Queen of England, June 24, 1509. One of the young king's first official acts was to bring Empson and Dudley, the hated lawyers of Henry VII., to the scaffold on a charge of treason—a proceeding designed to satisfy popular clamor. Henry VIII. was as prodigal as his father had been penurious; and the great fortune which he inherited was squandered in a few years in tournaments and other expensive entertainments, to the great grief of his careful counselor, Fox, Bishop of Winchester.

The young king was entirely under the influence of his Prime Minister, the Earl of Surrey, who took advantage of his master's naturally lavish disposition to encourage him in his prodigality, so that he might become negligent of public business and willing to trust the affairs of state entirely to his Ministers. To counteract the evil influence of the Earl of Surrey, and to restrain the young king's follies, Bishop Fox of Winchester introduced at court Thomas Wolsey, who had already displayed the qualities of shrewdness and dexterity.

Wolsey was the son of a butcher at Ipswich. The great talents and the love for study which he exhibited in his childhood caused him to be sent to the University of Oxford, where he took his first degree at so early an age as to be called the "boy bachelor." After having occupied various stations with great reputation, he finally became chaplain to Henry VII. He won the favor of Henry VII. by the surprising quickness and adroitness with which he performed a mission from that monarch to the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany, while that sovereign was at Brussels; going and returning in three days.

By the art of flattery, Wolsey soon acquired an unbounded influence over King Henry VIII.; but he made a different use of that influence from what Bishop Fox had intended, as he encouraged the young king's follies in order to promote his own advancement. He was soon made Archbishop of York, and Chancellor. Wolsey affected to regard Henry VIII. as the wisest of mortals, promoted his amusements and participated in them with the gayety of youth. By thus making himself agreeable as well

HENRY VIII.

as useful, Wolsey ruled one of the most capricious and passionate of sovereigns with absolute sway for ten years, and for a time acted a more conspicuous part in public affairs than his master.

The ambition of Henry VIII. for military glory involved England in a series of costly and unprofitable wars. He joined the League of Cambray against Venice. He also joined Ferdinand of Spain, the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany and Pope Julius II. in the Holy League against Louis XII. of France, reviving the almost forgotten claims of the Plantagenets to the western provinces of that kingdom. In 1512 he sent an expedition to conquer Guienne; but his crafty father-in-law, King Ferdinand of Spain, contrived to reap all the benefits of the enterprise by using the English forces to conquer the Kingdom of Navarre for himself, instead of Guienne for the English king.

In 1513 Henry VIII. invaded France by way of Calais with an army of twenty thousand men, besieged Terouenne, and defeated the French at Guinegate, in an engagement called the *Battle of the Spurs*, because of the ignominious flight of the French cavalry at the first onset, August 16, 1513. In this action the Emperor Maximilian I. served King Henry VIII. as a private soldier; and the Chevalier Bayard, the famous French knight, was among the prisoners taken by the English. Terouenne immediately capitulated; and Tournay surrendered several weeks later, September 9, 1513.

King James IV. of Scotland, the brother-in-law of Henry VIII., was the ally of Louis XII. of France. The chivalrous King of Scots invaded England with a large army and ravaged Northumberland; but he was defeated and killed by the English army under the Earl of Surrey at Flodden Field, near the Cheviot Hills, ten thousand gallant Scottish knights being among the slain, September 9, 1513, the very day of the capture of Tournay by Henry VIII. The battle of Flodden Field is celebrated in the old ballads, and finely described by Sir Walter Scott in his poem of Marmion.

Scotland was plunged into deep mourning by the loss of her king and the flower of her nobility; but the triumphant Henry VIII. generously granted the request of his sister Margaret, the widow of James IV., who acted as regent for her infant son, James V.; and peace was made between England and Scotland.

As Henry VIII. was deserted by his ally and father-in-law, Ferdinand of Spain, he made peace with Louis XII. of France in 1514. The treaty was sealed by the aged French king's marriage with the Princess Mary, the eldest sister of Henry VIII. Louis XII. died a few months later, January 1, 1515; and his young widowed queen married her old lover, Charles Francis Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, a great favorite of her royal brother and the most accomplished English nobleman of his time.

Observing the great influence which Wolsey exerted over King Henry VIII., Pope Leo X. desired to engage him in his interest, and with this object in view made him a cardinal in 1518, also appointing him to the dignity of papal legate in England, thus giving him a power in that kingdom equal to that of the Pope himself. Besides being Archbishop of York, Wolsey was allowed to hold the bishoprics of Tournay, Lincoln and Winchester "in plurality."

No other churchman ever equalled Cardinal Wolsey in state and dignity. His retinue consisted of eight hundred servants, many of whom were knights and gentlemen; and young nobles served as his pages. He was the first clergyman in England that wore silk and gold, not only on his dress, but also on the saddles and the trappings of his horses. The tallest and handsomest priests were selected to carry the badges of his various offices before him. All this ostentation excited the merriment of the English people, instead of awing them.

For twenty years Cardinal Wolsey stood at the head of Church and State, and no abler Chancellor ever administered justice in England. He was the most powerful, if not the ablest, subject that England ever had. His decisions were so prompt and so just that

the Court of Chancery became the certain refuge of the oppressed—quite the contrary from its later character.

Wolsey's genius was unequaled for breadth or versatility. He could play the courtier and divert the idle king's pleasure-loving hours with constant sallies of wit and mirth, or he could act the statesman and guide the most intricate affairs of state with consummate skill. He would sometimes leave the scenes of pomp and splendor, and devote himself with simplicity and meekness to the ordinary duties of the parish priest; visiting the sick and the dying, giving alms to the poor and needy, and ministering in numberless ways to the

CARDINAL THOMAS WOLSEY.

temporal and spiritual wants of his grateful people. Wolsey's inordinate ambition led him to aspire to the Papacy; and he sacrificed his country's interests and made his king his perpetual dupe, in order to procure the favor of foreign princes by whose patronage he hoped to obtain that dignity.

Although Cardinal Wolsey was really the mainspring of all that was done in England, he contrived to make every act of government appear to proceed directly from his sovereign, whom he flattered by affecting the most humble submission to the royal will. Like Henry VIII. himself, Wolsey was a friend of the New Learning—a most munificent patron of learned men. He founded the first professorship of Greek in England. He established a school at Ipswich and Christ Church College at Oxford. The latter institution still attests his taste and liberality in building. His household almost equaled the king's in number and magnificence, and knights and barons served at his table. His two mansions—the one at Hampton Court and the other at Whitehall—were so splendid that they became royal palaces after his fall from power.

As we have seen, Henry VIII., Francis I. of France and Charles I. of Spain were candidates for the imperial throne of Germany after the death of the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519; and Charles was successful, being chosen by the German Electors, thus becoming the Emperor Charles V. and the greatest and most powerful monarch of his time.

As we have already noticed, both Francis I. of France and the Emperor Charles V. desired to secure the alliance of Henry VIII. A royal interview was arranged between the Kings of England and France to take place near Calais; but before the appointed time the Emperor visited Henry VIII. in England, and won the favor of the English king by flattering Cardinal Wolsey with hopes of being elected Pope at the next vacancy, and by his frank and genial courtesies. On the day of the Emperor's departure Henry VIII. and all his courtiers sailed for Calais to meet the French king.

The meeting between Henry VIII. and Francis I. took place in a plain near Calais, in June, 1520, and was called the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*, from the magnificence of the display, many of the tents being of silk and cloth of gold. The two thousand eight hundred tents were inadequate to accommodate the vast multitudes that flocked to this splendid festival, and many ladies and gentlemen of rank were glad to obtain lodging in barns and to sleep upon hay and straw.

The meeting lasted a fortnight; and the two kings displayed their knightly skill in tilts and tournaments, while their Ministers talked business, after which they parted with profuse assurances of friendship, and

LANDING OF HENRY VIII. AT CALAIS.

Henry VIII. proceeded to visit the Emperor Charles V. at Gravelines, where he was won over more completely to the imperial side. Wolsey received the revenues of two Spanish bishoprics, in earnest of his greater expectations; but, in spite of the Emperor's promises, his tutor Adrian was made Pope upon the death of Leo X.; and upon the death of Adrian VI., after a short reign, Clement VII., an Italian prince, was invested with the papal tiara by the favor of His Imperial Majesty.

Though Henry VIII. was the ally of Charles V. in the Emperor's first war with the King of France, the captivity of Francis I. in 1525 opened the English king's eyes to the Emperor's ambition, and Henry VIII. made an alliance with France in order to secure the release of Francis I. and to prevent the seizure of any part of the French territory by Charles V.

Cardinal Wolsey was making himself obnoxious to the English people by his diplomacy. He was generally considered the author of the arbitrary measures by which the king sought to extort money from his subjects in 1525, which almost produced rebellion. Wolsey became more bitterly hated by the English people, although he only carried out the king's instructions; but Henry VIII. became popular because of the relinquishment of his design—a measure which he was unable to avoid.

Wolsey's disappointments in the last two papal elections aroused his indignation, and the ambitious cardinal now became convinced of the insincerity of the Emperor's promises; and thenceforth England's foreign policy underwent a change. Wolsey's disappointment caused the ambitious Minister to promote his country's true interests by seeking to check the power of Spain. Wolsey was all powerful at home. His nomination as papal legate was confirmed by both Popes Adrian VI. and Clement VII.; and he held in his hands the whole papal power in England, using that power to suit his own purposes.

In 1521 Henry VIII. wrote a Latin volume against Luther and the Reformation; and Pope Leo X. conferred upon the royal author the title of *Defender of the Faith*, and wrote him a letter praising his wisdom, learning, zeal, charity, gravity, gentleness and meekness—most of which qualities the king did not possess. But a change was soon to take place in the relations between Henry VIII. and the Head of the Church—a change fraught with the most momentous consequences for England, as we shall presently see.

About this time Henry VIII. became captivated by the charms of Anne Boleyn, a beautiful young lady then living at his court. She had been educated at the French court, and had returned to England with her English beauty adorned by French grace and vivacity. Seeking for a pretext upon which he could obtain a divorce from his first wife, Catharine of Aragon, that he might marry Anne Boleyn, he affected great doubts about the legality of his marriage with Catharine because she had previously been married to his brother Arthur. Such marriages are forbidden by the Levitical law and by a canon of the Romish Church, but a special dispensation had been obtained from Pope Alexander VI. sanctioning Henry's marriage with his brother's widow.

Henry VIII. seems to have been sincere in his doubts about the legality of his marriage with Catharine of Aragon. He coupled these conscientious scruples with his "despair of having male issue by Catharine, to inherit the realm." All the sons born of this marriage had died in their infancy; and only a sickly daughter, the Princess Mary, survived. The king in his superstition considered the premature death of his sons a sure mark of Divine wrath. Wolsey craftily aggravated these fears, if he did not inspire them; as the ambitious cardinal hated the Spanish party, of which Catharine of Aragon was the head, and coveted the glory of arranging a new marriage for his king with a French princess. But Henry VIII. made his own choice, without his Minister's aid, or even without the Pope's permission, by deciding to marry

Anne Boleyn after obtaining a divorce from Catharine of Aragon.

Another papal dispensation was required for the king's divorce from his first wife before he could form a new marriage, and Cardinal Wolsey was commissioned to secure this divorce. Pope Clement VII. was in a serious dilemma. If he sanctioned the English king's divorce from his Spanish wife he would offend the Emperor Charles V., who was her nephew; and the Netherlands would be almost certain to become Protestant, along with Germany. If he forbade the divorce both England and France might renounce the Romish Church, as these countries were full of secret or open adherents of the Reformation. Under these circumstances the Pope temporized.

Cardinal Wolsey was as much perplexed as to the proper course to pursue as was the Pope. If he granted the king's divorce on his own responsibility he would offend the Pope. If he refused he would incur the king's wrath, and thus Wolsey likewise temporized. For two weary years the impatient Henry VIII. was kept in suspense, and his impatience was aggravated by his violent passion for Anne Boleyn.

At length, in 1528, Pope Clement VII. sent Cardinal Campeggio, an Italian prelate, to England to decide in concert with Cardinal Wolsey the validity of the king's first marriage. Campeggio endeavored to settle the matter by private negotiation, first seeking to persuade the king to abandon his thoughts of a divorce, and then trying to induce Catharine to consent to the divorce and retire to a nunnery, but failing in both endeavors. After another year of delays, Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio proceeded to a trial of the cause in 1529; but they appeared unwilling to come to a decision. The king's patience was almost exhausted, and the courtiers now perceived that the king's favor for Wolsey was waning.

The court organized by Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio in 1529 to try the case of the king's first marriage had sat for two months without arriving at any result. Catharine of Aragon had all along appealed to her nephew, the Emperor Charles V., for protection. She now appeared before this court with her royal husband, and threw herself on her knees before him, addressing him an affecting and affectionate appeal not to brand her with the crime of incest and their daughter Mary as an illegitimate child, and imploring him to remember the fidelity with which she had observed her marriage vows for twenty years. She then made a solemn appeal to Pope Clement VII., after which she left the court and refused to enter it again.

On July 23, 1529, Cardinal Campeggio suddenly adjourned the court until October following; and a few days afterward orders came from Pope Clement VII., transferring the case to Rome, and citing Henry VIII. aud his queen to appear there and plead their respective causes at the papal bar. The King of England was now convinced that the Pope had all along been trifling with him and that he was willing to sacrifice him to please the Emperor Charles V.

This disposition of the case sealed the fate of Cardinal Wolsey, and made a rupture between Henry VIII. and the Pope inevitable. The king turned furiously upon Wolsey, who was in no way responsible for the Pope's action. It was the king's habit to make his Ministers responsible for the fate of the measures entrusted to them, but Henry VIII. proceeded cautiously. Wolsey's influence with his king was a thing of the past. Anne Boleyn, who suspected that the great cardinal opposed her marriage with the king, joined his enemies, of which his pride and arrogance had created many.

Wolsey's enemies proceeded with such secrecy that his first knowledge of their action was an indictment brought against him with the king's consent, but the great cardinal had long dreaded such an event as the result of a failure of the divorce proceedings. The Great Seal was taken from him and intrusted to Sir Thomas More. Wolsey, deprived of all his temporal honors and offices, was banished from court and ordered to retire to his archbishopric of

York. The king also seized the fallen Minister's palace of York Place, afterward called Whitehall, along with his gorgeous plate and furniture, his clothes, and a tomb which he had prepared for himself at Windsor. The unfortunate Minister was impeached on forty-four charges, and sentenced to imprisonment along with forfeiture of lands and goods.

But the king's resentment soon subsided; and Wolsey received a royal pardon, and a portion of his revenues were restored to him; but he was required to reside at York, the archbishopric of which was the only dignity that he was allowed to retain. Adversity did not cure the disgraced Minister of his love of magnificence, thus drawing on him again the king's displeasure. In 1530 his enemies caused him to be arrested on a charge of high treason, in setting up a foreign court in the kingdom; and he was arrested at York by the Earl of Northumberland.

In charge of Master Kingston, the Constable of the Tower, Wolsey started on his last journey to London; but on the way he was seized with a violent fever, brought on by anxiety and grief at his fall. Upon arriving at Leicester Abbey, on the third day of the journey, Saturday night, November 26, 1530, Wolsey was conscious that his end was approaching, and he said to the abbot, who came to the gate to give him a kindly welcome: "My father, I am come hither to leave my bones among you." He was lifted from his mule, and was carried to his bed, which he never left alive. He died three days later, November 29, 1530; after addressing the Constable of the Tower in these ever memorable and affecting words: "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

Such was the sad end of the once great and all-powerful Cardinal Wolsey—a striking illustration of the vanity of earthly glory. Henry VIII., whose ingratitude was the basest of his many faults, could crush long-tried and faithful servants with as little feeling as if he were treading upon the meanest reptile. The genius of Shakspeare has crystallized Wolsey's last words as though he were addressing the only friend who did not desert him, Sir Thomas Cromwell, in these words:

"O Cromwell, Cromwell,
Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my king, He would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies."

In the meantime King Henry VIII. was collecting the opinions of learned men on the subject of his divorce; but the clergy made one delay after another, and two more years passed without resulting in any progress. Just before Wolsey's disgrace and fall, two of the king's servants, Gardiner and Fox, accidentally fell in company with Thomas Cranmer, a fellow of Jesus College at Cambridge, with whom they conversed on the subject of the king'divorce. Cranmer at first refrained from expressing any opinion; but, when pressed, said that he would waste no time in negotiating with the Pope, but would propose to the most learned men in Europe this plain question: "Can a man marry his brother's widow?" This hint so impressed the two doctors that they reported it to the king, who said bluntly, with an oath: "Cranmer has got the right sow by the ear." Henry VIII. at once took Cranmer into his service and engaged him to write a book in favor of the divorce.

Cranmer's proposition to submit the question of the king's divorce to all the universities of Europe suggested to Henry VIII. a way toward the solution of the vexed question. If the universities answered that a man might marry his brother's widow, the king's conscience would be relieved; if their advice was for divorce, the Pope would be unable to resist their decision. The Pope threatened to excommunicate Henry VIII. in case he divorced Catharine of Aragon and married Anne Boleyn; but the great universities of Europe mainly decided in the English king's favor. In the meantime the course of events in England, along with the bold advice of Sir Thomas Cromwell, his new Sec-

retary of State, led Henry VIII. to more decisive action.

In 1533 Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and he at once proceeded to try the question of divorce. A court was convened; and, after a fortnight passed in hearing arguments, sentence of divorce was pronounced, declaring that the marriage was not valid from the beginning, and that Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon, was illegitimate, and therefore not an heir to the English crown. The poor queen retired to Ampthill, and Henry VIII. was publicly married to Anne Boleyn. The Princess Elizabeth was born in 1533—an event celebrated with splendor and rejoicing.

The intelligence of the court's sentence created commotion at Rome. Pope Clement VII. was at first doubtful as to what action he should take; but he at length issued an angry edict, declaring the king's marriage with Catharine of Aragon to be valid. The divorced queen, who had resisted to the utmost the disgrace and injustice heaped upon her, died in 1536, honored for her virtues and her piety.

The Pope soon perceived the great political error which he had committed. Sir Thomas Cromwell, the new Secretary of State, who had served Cardinal Wolsey with such fidelity, was a staunch friend of the Reformation; and Henry VIII. chose him because of his abilities and his bold, decisive character, as the king needed such an ally in the contest which his divorce and second marriage involved him with the Pope. Perceiving clearly that nothing was to be hoped for from the Pope, Cromwell advised King Henry VIII. to declare himself Head of the Church in England; and the king promptly acted on this advice.

The English bishops and higher clergy prepared to resist the king's action; but Henry VIII. determined to punish them for violation of the Statute of Præmunire, passed in the time of Edward III. and Wickliffe, which forbade any English subject to yield supreme obedience to a foreign potentate, and this applied to the Pope. Most of the clergy had been guilty of the violation of that statute by their submission to the papal legate's court in England—the crime for which Wolsey had been condemned.

The English clergy only obtained pardon by paying a fine of one hundred and eighteen thousand eight hundred and forty pounds sterling, and by acknowledging that the king was the "Protector and Supreme Head of the Church and clergy of England" —an acknowledgment which they qualified by the clause "in so far as is permitted by the laws of Christ." By this measure Henry VIII. struck a decisive blow at the connection between the English Church and the Pope, and laid the foundation of the complete independence of that Church.

The English king next proceeded to annul the Pope's claim to tribute and obedience from England, and to put a stop to the payment of the large sums of money which the Pope annually drew from England; and Parliament passed a statute forbidding any appeals from English subjects to the Pope or to any person outside the realm. Monasteries and nunneries in England were subjected to inspection and control by the king's officers. Bishops were to be appointed by the clergy attached to their cathedrals, upon receiving letters of permission from the king.

These measures led to the resignation of the Chancellor, Sir Thomas More, one of the best of Englishmen and a devoted Roman Catholic. The king received his resignation with regret, as he sincerely esteemed him; but proceeded in his efforts. Finally, in 1534, the English Parliament passed the *Act of Supremacy*, by which the King of England was declared the Supreme Head of the Church of England, thus making the English Church thoroughly independent of the Pope. The Act of Supremacy made it high treason for any English subject to deny that the King of England was "the Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England."

Though the English Reformation was immediately brought about by personal and selfish motives, this decisive movement had

a far deeper origin, and had been precipitated by the discussions concerning the king's marriage. The Pope's irresolution shook the faith of many who gladly would have considered him infallible; and the question was propounded: "If Pope Clement *will* not decide when England's welfare is at stake, where is his justice? If he *can* not, where is his infallibility?" In spite of the Statute of Heretics, now rigorously executed, the hearts of the common people of England were more and more alienated from the Catholic Church.

A number of English Roman Catholics refused to acknowledge the king's ecclesiastical supremacy, and among these were Sir Thomas More and Fisher, Bishop of Rochester. They thus made themselves guilty of high treason. Neither would they recognize the exclusion of the Princess Mary as her father's successor. Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher were sent as prisoners to the Tower. A little later the prophecies of a Kentish nun produced a Catholic insurrection in England, but this outbreak was soon quelled, and the nun's imposture was exposed. The monks of the Charter House, in London—a brotherhood famous in that corrupt age for the purity and beneficence of their lives—were many of them executed on the scaffold, while others died of fever and starvation in loathsome prisons.

Determined to strike a final and decisive blow at the papal party in England, Henry VIII. caused Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher to be tried, condemned and beheaded for high treason, in 1535. The good bishop mounted the scaffold with a copy of the New Testament in his hand, and as he knelt to lay his head upon the block he read the words: "This is life eternal to know Thee, the only true God."

England lost one of the most admirable men of his time in the execution of Sir Thomas More, who was distinguished for his brilliant genius, his wonderful learning, his ardent piety and the sweetness of his domestic life. He had been a life-long reformer; but he had labored to reform the Church by remaining in it, and not to accomplish such reformation by separating from the old organization. He sincerely believed the Pope to be the Head of the Christian Church by Divine appointment, and for that reason he had resigned the office of Chancellor when Henry VIII. assumed the Supremacy of the English Church. It is said that the Emperor Charles V. remarked, upon hearing of More's execution: "I would rather have lost the best city in my dominions than so worthy a counselor."

Sir Thomas More was the author of a romance, entitled *Utopia*, meaning *Nowhere*, in which he satirizes the faults and oppressions of his own age and country, and depicts a perfect society and ideal commonwealth, which an imaginary companion of Amerigo Vespucci, deserted on the American continent, found somewhere in the wilds. This ideal place had wide and cleanly streets, comfortable houses, a system of public schools in which every child received a good education, perfect religious toleration and universal suffrage, though with a family and not an individual ballot; and the sole object of the government was the welfare of the entire people, and not the pleasure of the king.

Bishop Fisher had been made a cardinal by the Pope during his imprisonment; and Pope Paul III., upon hearing of his execution, excommunicated King Henry VIII., declared him deposed from his throne, and laid England under an interdict. The king retaliated by causing those of his subjects who had been chiefly instrumental in procuring the excommunication and interdict to be arrested, tried and beheaded for high treason. Thus speech against the Pope was no longer heresy in England.

King Henry VIII. was now the only Pope legally recognized in England; and all ecclesiastical, as well as civil, power was vested in him. He dictated the sermons of the pulpit, as well as the enactments of Parliament. He controlled the ecclesiastical, as well as the civil, courts. He declared what was truth and what was heresy. He appointed and removed bishops and archbishops at his pleasure. The vast revenues that

had flowed so steadily from England to the Vatican for centuries were now poured into his coffers. No priest could preach in England without a royal license, and no license was issued without the Oath of Supremacy. Every English priest was compelled to declare to his assembled parish their absolution from allegiance to the Pope, and their duty of obedience to their king as Head of the Church of England.

Thus the silent and bewildered English people, constrained by respect for law on the one hand and by reverence for religion on the other, were carried peacefully through the first and most critical crisis of a momentous religious revolution. In other countries the Reformation advanced only through a sea of blood. The peace and order that characterized the Reformation in England were vastly due to the overshadowing character of the throne and the iron will of the despot who occupied it.

The English Parliament removed the last vestige of a limitation to the royal authority by enacting that royal proclamations should have the force of statutes. It is said that if, during the sessions of Parliament, the king's name were only mentioned in his absence, the members would rise and bow before the vacant throne. Upon one occasion, when the House of Commons did not pass a law granting a supply as speedily as Henry VIII. desired, the king sent for Edward Montague, one of the most influential members of that branch of Parliament, who, when introduced to His Majesty, was greeted with these words: "Ho! man! will they not pass my bill?" Then laying one of his hands on Montague's head, as the subservient member of the Commons was on his knees before him, the tyrannical king exclaimed: "Get my bill passed by to-morrow, or else to-morrow this head of yours shall be off!" The bill was passed within the appointed time.

Thus far King Henry VIII. had been obliged by his own necessities in his struggle with the Pope to move forward with the English Reformers. He was vastly indebted to the Reformation for the success of his divorce proceedings, but the Reformation owed him very little. Though Archbishop Cranmer and Sir Thomas Cromwell had not yet openly renounced the Catholic doctrines, they sought steadily to lead the king into measures favorable to the Reformers; while the Duke of Norfolk and the other leaders of the Catholic party in England endeavored to encourage the king's devotion to the Romish faith and to prevent a renunciation of the Catholic doctrines by the English Church, but they were struggling against the logic of events.

The Bible had been made accessible to the English people, and was doing its work among them rapidly and decisively. William Tyndale had translated the Scriptures into English in 1526, and this translation was published in the Netherlands. Its circulation was forbidden in England under severe penalties; but there was a great demand for it, and it was read, in spite of the stringent laws against it. It was every day becoming more apparent that the English people were weakening in their belief in the cardinal doctrine of the Roman Catholic Church—the doctrine of transubstantiation; while the doctrine of justification by faith was becoming stronger.

The fires of persecution were again lighted in England, and Protestants died the death of martyrs at the stake. Henry VIII. relentlessly punished both Catholics and Lutherans, the former for upholding the Pope's supremacy against the king's in England, and the latter for denying the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church. He still retained his early detestation of Luther and his doctrines.

But the English Reformers were proceeding forward beyond the point which Luther had reached, and were establishing the doctrines of their Church far in advance of his. Archbishop Cranmer, sensible of the influence of the Scriptures upon their readers, caused both houses of the convocation to pass a resolution in 1536 requesting the king to appoint learned men to translate the Scriptures for circulation among the English people. The Primate was warmly sup-

ported in this enterprise by Queen Anne and by Sir Thomas Cromwell; and the result was that the king sanctioned William Tyndale's translation of the Bible, as revised by Miles Coverdale in 1535, and supposed to have been printed at Zurich, in Switzerland. This result, which was accomplished by Cranmer in 1536, was an immense gain for the English Reformers.

Archbishop Cranmer very much desired that the public service of the Church should be in English instead of Latin, but he was very well aware that Henry VIII. would violently oppose such an innovation. He therefore considered it the best policy to lead to the desired change by degrees; and he gradually obtained the king's permission to have the Decalogue, the Lord's Prayer and the new Church creed read in English in the churches, and to be taught in every school and family. A copy of the English Bible, as translated by William Tyndale and Miles Coverdale, was ordered to be chained to the pillar or desk of every church in England, and to be open to the reading of all. In 1539 Archbishop Cranmer made a new English translation of the Bible.

When these Bibles appeared they were thankfully received by the English people, who flocked to the churches, where they could hear the holy book read; and a great number learned to read for the sole purpose of perusing the sacred volume. The great increase in the number of books, through the invention of the art of printing, had produced a taste for reading among the English.

The king drew up the articles of religion, which showed that he had taken a middle ground between Protestants and Papists. These articles of religion made the Bible the sole standard of faith in England; reduced the sacraments from seven to three—penance, baptism and the Eucharist; retained transubstantiation and confession, but added justification by faith; and rejected pilgrimages, purgatory, indulgences, the worship of images and relics, and masses for the dead.

Archbishop Cranmer, the only one of the servants of Henry VIII. who retained the king's favor from first to last, by his integrity of character, and not by obsequiousness or sycophancy, had no selfish views of his own; but his soul was occupied with one grand object—the reformation of religion. Wolsey's great abilities were solely employed in elevating himself to the highest earthly dignity. Sir Thomas Cromwell, though a zealous Reformer, was intent on enriching himself from the pillage of the religious houses in England. But Cranmer's character was so destitute of ambition and covetousness that he at first declined the Primacy, and finally accepted it only because he hoped that it would give him better means of advancing the cause which he had at heart. Cranmer's timidity betrayed him into some weaknesses, but his virtue awed the tyrannical king, who usually contrived to send him to a distance when he was about to perpetrate any flagrant act. The king's regard for the good archbishop was always sincere.

In the meantime the English Reformers suffered a severe loss in the execution of the queen, Anne Boleyn, who was inclined to their doctrines and exerted her influence with her royal husband in their behalf. Her enjoyment of a crown was of short duration. Her French manners and vivacity, which had so charmed Henry VIII. before her marriage, became displeasing to him after she became his wife; so that his passion for her cooled, and he became indifferent to her. Her enemies—the entire Catholic party in England—exerted themselves to widen the breach between her and her royal husband; and in this they were finally successful.

Henry VIII. was induced to believe that his consort was unfaithful to him, and he caused her to be arrested and imprisoned in the Tower, May 2, 1536. She now paid dearly for her brief exaltation. Accused of a crime of which she was innocent, she was not permitted to see her friends, and was surrounded by her most inveterate enemies. After a mock trial by a jury of peers, in which she was allowed no counsel, she

831 ANNE BOLEYN RECEIVING THE NEWS OF HER DEATH-WARRANT.

was pronounced guilty and sentenced to death. Her marriage was also declared void; and her daughter Elizabeth, afterward queen, was declared incapable of inheriting the English crown.

On the morning of her execution she sent for Kingston, the Constable of the Tower; and when he entered her prison, she said: "Mr. Kingston, I hear I am not to die till noon, and I am sorry for it; for I thought to be dead before this time, and free from a life of pain." The Constable of the Tower sought to comfort her by assuring her that her pain would be very little; whereupon she replied: "I have heard the executioner is very expert; and (clasping her neck with her hands, laughing) I have but a little neck."

When brought to the scaffold, she would not inflame the minds of the spectators present against her persecutors, because of a consideration of her daughter Elizabeth's welfare; but contented herself with saying: "I am come to die as I am sentenced by the law." She refused to accuse any one or to say anything of the charge upon which she had been condemned. She prayed heartily for the king, and called him "a most merciful and gentle prince," and said that he had always been to her "a good and gracious sovereign," and that if any one should think proper to canvass her cause she desired him to judge the best. She was beheaded on the Tower green by the executioner of Calais, who was brought over to London because he was more expert than any headsman in England.

Says Hume, concerning the fate of the unfortunate Anne Boleyn: "The innocence of this unfortunate queen cannot reasonably be called in question. Henry himself, in the violence of his rage, knew not whom to accuse as her lover; and though he imputed guilt to her brother and four persons more, he was able to bring proof against none of them."

The real fact was that Henry VIII. was tired of Anne Boleyn, and was anxious to get rid of her, as she stood in the way of his gratification of a new passion. On the very day after her execution he married Jane Seymour, the daughter of Sir Thomas Seymour, a Wiltshire knight. This third wife of Henry VIII. died the next year, 1537, a few days after having given birth to a son named Edward.

The execution of Anne Boleyn led to a reconciliation between Henry VIII. and the Princess Mary, his daughter with his first wife, Catharine of Aragon. He required her to acknowledge his supremacy as Head of the English Church and to admit the illegality of her mother's marriage. She was twenty years of age and a proud-spirited woman; but, as she knew her father's disposition too well to resist his demands, and as she was aware that her own safety depended upon her acquiescence, she wrote him a letter admitting his claims, and was therefore received into his favor.

Acting upon Archbishop Cranmer's advice, King Henry VIII. took another decisive step—the suppression of the religious houses in England. A commission was appointed to visit the religious houses. This commission reported most of them as corrupt and immoral, besides being centers of baneful idleness and of unremitting opposition and unrelenting hostility to the crown. But the king proceeded with caution. A statute of Parliament suppressed the lesser monasteries and nunneries in 1536, and the greater religious houses were closed in 1538. As the "Black Book," which reported the conduct of the monks and nuns, was read in Parliament, cries resounded from all sides: "Down with them! down with them!" Thus the monasteries and nunneries were completely broken up in England, and the monks and nuns were turned out into the world, ten thousand nuns alone being made homeless by the cruel statute.

The suppression of the monasteries and nunneries in England produced much discontent and some disorder. The bounty of these religious houses had fed multitudes of paupers, who were no more able to earn an honest living than were the monks and nuns themselves. In the northern counties of England, where the people adhered to

the Catholic religion, a hundred thousand persons took up arms and undertook what they called a "Pilgrimage of Grace." They took possession of all the towns and castles north of the Humber. A "Parliament of the North" assembled at Pontefract, demanded the reëstablishment of the papal supremacy over England, the restoration of the Princess Mary to her rights as heiress to the English crown, and the overthrow of Sir Thomas Cromwell. The insurgents set out from Yorkshire for London, to force the king to comply with their conditions. The king was obliged to take the field against the malcontents, and the rebellion was suppressed with terrible cruelty. Four great abbots were hanged, and the last of the old feudal chiefs were beheaded.

All the rentals, gold, silver, and other property of the religious houses were confiscated. The abbots were pensioned, and a part of their revenues was expended in founding schools, colleges, and six new bishoprics; but a considerable portion enriched the king's courtiers and favorites. The king's greed for the wealth of the Church may have been the principal motive for this cruel proceeding.

Henry VIII. next caused the tombs and shrines of the saints to be robbed of their costly works of art and enormous treasures; and these shrines, so long the objects of adoration and rich with the gifts of numberless pilgrims, were ruthlessly destroyed after being plundered of their wealth. The most famous of these shrines was that of Thomas à Becket, or St. Thomas of Canterbury, from which two immense chests of gold and jewels were carried away to the royal coffers. Not satisfied with robbing Becket's shrine, Henry VIII. proceeded to uncanonize that revered saint and martyr, declaring that he was no saint and that he had died as a rebel and a traitor.

These acts of King Henry VIII. caused Pope Paul III. to excommunicate him, to pronounce his dethronement, to lay England under an interdict, and to absolve the English people from their allegiance to their king. The Pope called upon the English nobles and people to take up arms against their sovereign, declared him infamous, and commanded all the monarchs of Christendom to make war upon him and to seize such of his subjects as they were able to get into their power and hold them as slaves.

The Pope's efforts produced no effect in England; as the Reformers were too strong and the king's power was too great, and the exposures of the fraud and corruption of the Romish Church, in connection with the suppression of the monasteries and nunneries, had disgusted the English people so thoroughly that the Catholic party could not hope for a successful rebellion; while England was too formidable for any foreign power to desire to make war upon her by an invasion of her own soil, and the Pope's spiritual weapons had lost their force in the eyes of Christendom.

Cardinal Pole, a grandson of George, Duke of Clarence, and a kinsman of King Henry VIII., was residing abroad at that time, and exerted himself to his utmost to instigate the monarchs of Continental Europe to make war upon England, but failed in these efforts. His elder brother, Lord Montague, and his aged mother, the Countess of Salisbury, the last of the direct line of the Plantagenets, and their kinsman, the Marquis of Exeter, along with some others, were detected in a treasonable correspondence with him, and were arrested, tried, convicted and beheaded.

Although Henry VIII. had gone to such extremes in renouncing the Pope's authority in England, he was still sincerely attached to the Catholic faith. In 1539 he united with the Catholic party and drew up the *Six Articles*, by which he struck a direct blow at the English Reformers. Henry VIII. exerted all his despotic power to compel his subjects to accept these articles.

The statute embracing these articles was called by Fox "the whip with six strings." It was largely the result of a Catholic reaction in consequence of the excesses of the radical Reformers, and it reaffirmed the car-

dinal doctrines of the Romish Church. The bloody statute imposed the penalty of death by fire upon all who violated it. The English prisons were rapidly filled with offenders. Catholics perished at the stake for not accepting the Protestant Head of the English Church, and Protestants likewise suffered martyrdom for rejecting the Catholic faith. But the execution of this terrible statute was relaxed after a few months, and the king permitted every householder to have an English Bible in his family.

The ten years of Sir Thomas Cromwell's administration (A. D. 1530–1540) have been known as the *First English Reign of Terror*. Opinion itself was made treason, and a man's refusal to reveal his inmost thoughts was considered evidence of crime. Sir Thomas Cromwell, Wolsey's faithful friend to the last and the son of a blacksmith, had risen by the force of his natural talents from the humble rank of a private soldier to the dignity of Secretary of State.

King Henry VIII., who had now been a widower for three years after having been thrice married, desired a fourth wife; but there were some who thought that the dignity of queen might be paid for too dearly. One lady whom he asked sent him a refusal, saying that she had but one head, and that if she had two she might venture to marry him. Sir Thomas Cromwell desired that the king should marry a Protestant princess of Germany, and showed him a portrait of Anne of Cleves. Henry VIII. was so much pleased with the picture that he sent to demand the princess in marriage.

When Anne of Cleves arrived in England, Henry VIII. found that she was so unlike the picture that he was with difficulty persuaded to marry her. The marriage occurred in 1540. When the king discovered that his new wife was ignorant and stupid, and that she could speak only the German language, he became so disgusted with her that he sought a pretext for divorce.

The king never forgave Sir Thomas Cromwell for his blunder in procuring so unacceptable a bride for him; and the Duke of Norfolk and the other Catholic leaders determined to take advantage of the king's resentment to procure Cromwell's destruction. That famous Minister was cordially hated by the old nobles as a low-born upstart, and by the whole Catholic party for his conspicuous share in the destruction of the monasteries, which had acquired for him the title of the "Hammer of the Monks." Cromwell was arrested and tried for heresy and treason; and, though neither charge could be proven, he was condemned and beheaded without a hearing, July 28, 1540—in the language of the Council, being "judged by the bloody laws he has himself made." His only crime was the extreme zeal with which he supported the king's tyranny.

Six months after his marriage with Anne of Cleves, Henry VIII. obtained his divorce from her; Parliament most obsequiously annulling the marriage, and Anne meekly consenting to the separation and accepting a liberal pension and a fine palace in England, in place of the queenly dignity. She remained in England for the rest of her life, and outlived Henry VIII. by ten years.

In the meantime Henry VIII had become enamored of Catharine Howard, a niece of the Duke of Norfolk, the leader of the Catholic party in England; and she became the king's fifth wife in less than two weeks after his divorce from Anne of Cleves. The king was so much pleased with the wit and agreeableness of his new queen that he caused a thanksgiving prayer to be offered for his happy marriage; but in about a year and a half he discovered that she had not only been unchaste before marriage, but that her conduct still continued shamefully bad. The king was obliged to sign her death-warrant, and she was beheaded on Tower Hill, February 12, 1542, along with several of her paramours, one of whom had been the chief accuser of Anne Boleyn.

The execution of Sir Thomas Cromwell and the king's marriage with Catharine Howard restored the Catholic party to power in England; but the Papist leaders did not dare to proceed in the course which they had

marked out as Romanists, as they would have lost their influence with the king by such an avowal. They therefore maintained their influence over him as believers in transubstantiation. The Six Articles were enforced with the utmost rigor, and in 1543 the general permission to read the Bible was revoked. Only the higher classes, or merchants, who were householders, were permitted to read it; the common people being denied that privilege.

In 1536 Wales was incorporated with England, and received English laws and privileges; and in 1542 Ireland was created a kingdom, after the English authority had been strengthened in that country. Henry VIII. paid great attention to his navy and brought it to a high state of efficiency. During his reign serfdom was abolished in England.

In the meantime Henry VIII. had been seeking to draw Scotland into closer relations with England; but king James V. of Scotland, who was a Roman Catholic, had no desire for an alliance with his uncle, the English king, whom he considered the great enemy of the Romish Church. Vexed at his failure, Henry VIII. declared war against Scotland in 1542. Hoping to anticipate him, James V. sent ten thousand troops across the border into England, but this Scottish army was routed by only five hundred English at Solway Moss. James V. died of grief and shame at this humiliation, December 14, 1542, leaving the Scottish crown to his infant daughter, Mary Stuart.

Henry VIII., earnestly desiring a union of the two kingdoms, negotiated a marriage between his son Edward and the infant Scottish princess; but the queen-mother of Scotland and the regent of that kingdom, the Earl of Arran, who were Roman Catholics, resolved to disregard this treaty. The King of England attempted to enforce the treaty; and sent an army into Scotland for that purpose, under the command of the Earl of Hertford, the brother of Jane Seymour, the third wife of Henry VIII. The English army ravaged Scotland, and sacked and burned Edinburgh.

As the Catholic party in Scotland thwarted the proposed marriage by forming a closer alliance with France, Henry VIII., enraged at his failure, entered into an alliance with the Emperor Charles V. in a war against Francis I. of France. In 1544 Henry VIII. invaded France and took Boulogne after a short siege; but peace was made with France and Scotland in 1546, by which Boulogne was to be restored to France eight years later upon the payment of a ransom to the English.

In 1543 Henry VIII. married his sixth and last wife, Catharine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer, a woman of sense and discretion, who outlived him. She was a Protestant at heart and favorably disposed toward the Reformers. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, one of the Catholic leaders, and his party, eagerly sought to bring about her destruction. They succeeded with the king in causing Anne Askew, one of the new queen's maids of honor, to die a martyr's death by burning, for denying the doctrine of transubstantiation; but they failed in their efforts to wring from the condemned woman some confession damaging to the queen.

Anne Askew and those who suffered martyrdom with her perished with heroic fortitude. A thunder-storm which appeared at the time excited the superstitious feelings of both the friends and enemies of the condemned; the Protestants regarding it as a manifestation of the Divine wrath in consequence of the cruel fate of the martyrs; while the Catholics considered it a manifestation of the Divine vengeance for the heretical doctrines of the condemned, and shouted: "They are damned! they are damned!"

The Papist leaders, Gardiner and the Duke of Norfolk, enraged by their failure to wring a confession from Anne Askew damaging to the new queen, sought to encompass the destruction of Archbishop Cranmer. They endeavored to persuade the king that the Primate and his learned men were destroying the kingdom with heresy, and asked for his commitment to the Tower; but Henry VIII., whose thorough attach-

ment to, and sincere regard for, Cranmer remained unshaken, allowed the Papist leaders to proceed far enough to show the good archbishop who were his enemies and who his friends, and then sternly forbade them to raise a hand against the Primate, whom he declared to be faithful and true. Thenceforth the queen and the Primate were safe from the attacks of the Papist party.

Henry VIII. continued zealous against both Papists and Protestants, and many of both parties perished at the same stake. All who denied the king's ecclesiastical supremacy in his kingdom were deemed heretics in religion and traitors to their king and country. As the king required his subjects to make his opinion their standard of faith, and as he was constantly changing his opinion and causing contradictory laws to be enacted, his subjects found it difficult to steer a safe course amid the perils with which his tyrannical caprice surrounded them.

Henry VIII. was vain of his theological knowledge, and even engaged in public discussions with those who were accused of heresy. Theology was his favorite subject of conversation, but woe to such as had the audacity to differ with him. Upon one occasion his last wife, Catharine Parr, expressed herself rather too freely in favor of the Protestant doctrines; and the king, provoked that she should presume to differ with him, complained to Gardiner about the queen's obstinacy. The bigoted Papist leader sought to widen the breach between the king and the queen, and finally persuaded the king to consent that the queen should be publicly accused and tried for heresy.

With so capricious a monarch as Henry VIII. it was hazardous for any officer to sign the articles; as it was high treason—a capital offense—for any subject to slander the queen. The paper which was prepared for the king's signature fell into the hands of the queen's friends by some means, and she was apprised of her peril. Relying on her prudence and address to thwart the machinations of her enemies, she paid her customary visit to her royal husband, and found him more placid than she had expected.

On this occasion the king at once entered upon his favorite topic of discussion, and apparently challenged the queen to an argument; but she gently declined the conversation, saying that such profound speculations were not suited to her sex, that she was blessed with a husband who was qualified by his judgment and learning to choose principles for his own family and for the wisest and most learned in the kingdom, and that she found conversation liable to languish when there was no opposition, and for that reason she sometimes ventured to differ with him merely to give him the pleasure of refuting her. Thereupon the king replied: "And is it so? then we are perfect friends again."

The Papist leaders were unaware of the change in the king's feelings toward his wife, and prepared the next day to send her to the Tower. The royal couple were conversing amicably in the garden when the Chancellor appeared with forty of his retinue. The king spoke to the Chancellor at some distance from the queen, and seemed to be angry with him. She overheard the epithets "knave," "fool," "beast," etc., which the king lavishly addressed to the magistrate. When the king returned to his wife she sought to mitigate his anger, whereupon he replied: "Poor soul! you know not how ill entitled this man is to your good offices." Queen Catharine Parr was very careful never again to contradict her royal husband, and Gardiner was unable ever to regain the good opinion of His Majesty.

The entire reign of Henry VIII. is noted as an era of learning and as the period of the Oxford Reformers. Though fond of pleasure and display, Henry VIII. was scholarly in his tastes and well educated, and carefully fostered the new spirit of enterprise and mental activity among his subjects. Learning now became fashionable in England. The nobles paid great regard to men of knowledge. Individuals of the

highest rank and of both sexes aspired to be able to speak and write pure Latin, which was considered a polite accomplishment.

The greatest scholars of the age were engaged in writing grammars, vocabularies, colloquies and other works, to aid the illiterate in acquiring knowledge. Cardinal Wolsey is said to have written the preface to a grammar, which is still used in England, prepared by William Lilly, whose great scholarship was the means of making him the first master of St. Paul's School, then just founded in London.

Colet, whom Henry VII. had created Dean of St. Paul's, became the head of a new school for the study of Latin and Greek literature during the reign of Henry VIII. By the invitation of Cardinal Wolsey, the renowned scholar, Desiderius Erasmus, of Rotterdam, in Holland, came to England and received a professorship in the University of Cambridge. These zealous pioneers of the New Learning vigorously applied themselves to the work of reform, but found it difficult to persuade the people that a knowledge of the Greek language was either agreeable or useful. The monks considered the Greek language fit only to be spoken by the devil in the bad place, and when the study of this language was introduced into the University of Oxford the students in that renowned seat of learning divided into hostile factions, which frequently came to blows.

These parties among the Oxford students acquired the names of Greeks and Trojans, and sometimes fought with as much animosity as the ancient peoples whose respective names they bore had done several thousand years before. After a new and more correct method of pronouncing Greek had been introduced, the party of the Greeks themselves became rent into factions; the Catholics adhering to the old pronunciation, while the Protestants adopted the new. Bishop Gardiner declared that rather than permit the liberty of choosing the pronunciation of the Greek alphabet, it were better to banish the study of the Greek language from the universities; and, under his influence, the king caused the use of the new pronunciation to be forbidden, on penalty of whipping and other ignominious punishments.

With a moral courage reminding one of Wickliffe, Erasmus wrote book after book, advocating a reformation in politics and religion as well as in learning, ridiculing the follies of the age, exposing the corruptions of the Church to scorn and contempt, and addressing strong and affecting appeals to men's consciences. In his *Praise of Folly*, Erasmus represents Folly, dressed in cap and bells, as describing, in a speech to her associates, the religious teachers of the time,

DESIDERIUS ERASMUS.

the old school men, as "men who knew all about things of which St. Paul was ignorant, could talk science as though they had been consulted when the world was made, could give you dimensions of heaven as though they had been there and measured it with plumb and line, men who professed universal knowledge, and yet had not time to read the Gospels or the Epistles of St. Paul."

The work of Erasmus which had the most potent influence was his edition of the New Testament in parallel columns, one in Greek and the other in Latin. So great was the popular demand for this work that several editions were required. In speaking

of the Scriptures, Erasmus said in his preface: "I wish that they were translated into all languages, so as to be read and understood not only by Scots and Irishmen, but even by Saracens and Turks. I long for the day when the husbandman shall sing portions of them to himself as he follows the plough, when the weaver shall hum them to the tune of his shuttle, when the traveler shall while away with their stories the weariness of his journey."

For a period of forty years the Oxford Reformers were engaged in educating the English people to a higher degree of intelligence, and in preparing the way for the greater religious Reformation that followed.

SIR THOMAS MORE.

The old school men and theologians bitterly opposed the Oxford Reformers at every step. Sir Thomas More once wrote to Colet: "No wonder your school raises a storm, for it is like the wooden horse filled with armed Greeks for the destruction of Troy." And such was the case. That school became so popular that others of the same character were founded; and it is said that more schools were founded in the last years of the reign of Henry VIII. than in three centuries before.

Efforts were frequently made to destroy Colet—once, when, from the royal pulpit and in the king's very presence, he denounced the wars which Henry VIII. was waging against Francis I. of France; and again, when, at a convocation of bishops and clergy, after having been appointed to preach the opening sermon, he boldly accused many of them of leading worldly and immoral lives. The Bishops of London and others charged him with heresy; but Henry VIII. bluffly replied to those who sought his aid against Colet: "Let every man have his own doctor, but this man is the doctor for me."

The Oxford Reformers owed their safety to the king's protection, and the New Learning was indebted to him for its rapid progress; but the very men whom he shielded from their most implacable enemies he did not hesitate to bring to the block to die by the headsman's ax when they offered the faintest opposition to his imperious will.

Hans Holbein, the great Swiss painter, a native of Basle, was invited to England, where he flourished under the patronage of King Henry VIII., who employed him to paint the portraits of his wives, or those whom he intended to marry. He was twice sent to the continent of Europe, as the secret emissary of the king's love, to paint correct portraits of his intended wife; but the unmerited charms which his pencil imparted to Anne of Cleves, thus ensnaring his royal patron into a distasteful marriage, showed that he was not always a faithful messenger.

As Hans Holbein was one day engaged in painting a lady's portrait for King Henry VIII., a nobleman entered the painter's room; but Holbein, offended at this intrusion, pushed the nobleman down stairs. The nobleman went direct to the king and complained loudly of the insult which he had suffered, and demanded redress; but the king replied: "It is I, in the person of Holbein, who have been insulted. I can, when I please, make seven lords of seven plowmen; but I cannot make one Holbein even of seven lords."

In his later years Henry VIII. became very corpulent; and toward the end of his life he was afflicted with a painful disorder in one leg, which disabled him from walk-

ing and made him more furious than a chained lion. This infirmity so greatly increased the natural violence of his temper that everybody was afraid to come near him. Even his last wife, Catharine Parr, though she was his most attentive nurse, was harshly treated by him. Such were his tyranny and caprice that none could feel safe.

Among the last acts of the tyrannical monarch was the arrest of the Duke of Norfolk and his son, the Earl of Surrey, on a charge of aspiring to the English crown. The Duke of Norfolk, formerly Earl of Surrey, was considered the greatest subject in the kingdom, and had been one of the king's earliest favorites. He had rendered great services to the crown, and had been rewarded with honors and estates. He was allied to the royal family by marriage in various ways. His son, Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, was the most accomplished nobleman in the kingdom, and equally distinguished as a courtier, a soldier, a scholar, a poet, and a liberal patron of literature and the fine arts.

The Duke of Norfolk was the leader of the Catholic party in England, and his renowned son was also a zealous Papist. The frivolous charges brought against them were of small consequence with the Parliaments and juries of this tyrannical reign. The Earl of Surrey was convicted of high treason, and was beheaded January 19, 1547. The Duke of Norfolk tried every concession to save his own life; but the despotic sovereign, as if thirsting for the blood of the distinguished nobleman, hastened the action of his subservient Parliament. The death-warrant was signed by the king January 27, 1547; but the capricious tyrant died the next day, and the warrant was never executed.

Such was the temper of Henry VIII. when he was at the point of death that no one dared to tell him the terrible truth. At last one mustered sufficient courage to inform the dying tyrant that his end was at hand, and asked him if a clergyman should be sent for. The expiring monarch replied: "If any, Cranmer." When the good archbishop arrived the king was speechless, but he knew Cranmer and pressed his hand just as he breathed his last. Thus died Henry VIII., January 28, 1547, in the fifty-sixth year of his age and the thirty-eighth of his reign. His life-long rival, King Francis I. of France, survived him but two months.

The capricious and tyrannical acts which have darkened the reign of Henry VIII. occurred during his last twenty years. Had he died when he was thirty-six years of age he would doubtless have ranked in history among the wisest and best of kings. But the possession of absolute power gradually turned his strong will into blind obstinacy, his wisdom into dogmatism, and even his religious sense of responsibility for the correct religious faith of his subjects into a motive for the most atrocious persecutions.

Though the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth had been declared incapable of inheriting the English crown, Henry VIII. appointed them in his will to the succession after their half-brother Edward, in case that prince should die without issue. In case they all died without children he left the succession to the heirs of his youngest sister, the Duchess of Suffolk; thus excluding the heirs of his eldest sister, Margaret, who, after the death of her first husband, King James IV. of Scotland, had married the Earl of Angus, the head of the great Douglas family of Scotland.

FAMILY OF HENRY VIII.

WIVES.	CHILDREN.	
CATHARINE OF ARAGON, whom he divorced.	EDWARD, son of Jane Seymour, who succeeded his father.	
ANNE BOLEYN, whom he beheaded.		
JANE SEYMOUR, who died a natural death.		
ANNE OF CLEVES, whom he divorced.	MARY, daughter of Catharine of Aragon.	Afterward Queens of England.
CATHARINE HOWARD, whom he beheaded.	ELIZABETH, daughter of Anne Boleyn.	
CATHARINE PARR, who outlived him.		

EDWARD VI., the son of Henry VIII. and Jayne Seymour, was a boy of nine years when he succeeded his father as King of England. Henry VIII. had appointed a Council of Regency, consisting of sixteen members, with Archbishop Cranmer at its head, to govern the kingdom until his son should reach the age of eighteen years. The Council of Regency disregarded the will of Henry VIII. by appointing one of its members, the Earl of Hertford, afterward Duke of Somerset, the boy king's eldest maternal uncle, to the office of Protector.

The new Protector assumed royal power, and formed a new Council of Regency, consisting wholly of Protestants. As he was a zealous friend of the Reformation, he took good care to place the young king in the charge of Protestant teachers; and he desired to make England thoroughly Protestant without resorting to violent changes or persecutions.

The boy king's love for study and early application already gave promise of his future capacity for government. He readily imbibed the opinions of his Protestant instructors, and he manifested a knowledge, zeal and piety very remarkable in a child of his age. His favorite study was theology, and his greatest delight was in listening to sermons. Latimer, who had suffered much during the reign of Henry VIII. for his zeal in behalf of the Reformation, was appointed the young king's preacher, and had a pulpit placed in one of the royal gardens, where Edward VI. delighted to sit and listen for hours to his long but eloquent sermons. The royal youth did not neglect his other studies. His Latin exercises have been preserved, and do him great credit. He was unquestionably possessed of abilities of a very high order; and he also endeared himself to all around him by his gentle disposition, so very much the reverse of his father.

In the meantime the Reformation was going on with great vigor in Scotland, where the Protestants favored the alliance with England, while the Catholics allied themselves with France. By the treaty which had been negotiated during the lifetime of Henry VIII., Edward VI., the boy King of England, was betrothed to Mary, the girl Queen of Scotland, in order to carry out Henry's favorite idea of a union of the two British kingdoms.

In the very year of the accession of Edward VI. the Duke of Somerset, as Protector, urged upon the Scots the execution of the treaty; but the united French and Catholic influence in Scotland prevented it. The Protector thereupon led an English army into Scotland to compel the observance of the treaty; while an English fleet was sent into the Frith of Forth to assist the operations of the army.

The regent of Scotland raised a large army to repel the English invasion; but the Scottish army, being placed between the English army and the sea, and thus exposed to the cannon of the English ships and placed between two fires, was defeated with the loss of ten thousand men in the battle of Pinkie, September 10, 1547—the last national conflict between the English and the Scots. Among the Scottish slain were many monks and Roman Catholic priests, whose hatred of the English heretics induced them to enter the camp.

Among the many Scots who were taken prisoners was the Earl of Huntley, who expressed the prevailing sentiment among the Scots when, in answer to the question as to how he felt in regard to the marriage, he said he liked the match well enough, but disliked "the manner of wooing." The Scots were so irritated at the English that they sent young Queen Mary to France to be educated, and betrothed her to the Dauphin, afterward King Francis II. of France; thus rendering her marriage with Edward VI. impossible.

The Reformation in England now went on with renewed vigor. Parliament repealed the Six Articles, as well as the old and recent laws against heresy, and the tyrannical laws of Henry VIII. concerning treason. The Catholic clergy were removed from their livings, and Protestants were appointed in their places. In order to obtain the

wealth of the Church, the Protestant leaders perpetrated many outrages on the Catholic clergy. The churches were despoiled of their plate; and their crucifixes and images, the paintings on their walls, and the stained glass in their windows, were ruthlessly destroyed. The colleges connected with the religious houses, and the chantries, or places where mass was said for the dead, were broken up; and a part of their revenues was used for the endowment of grammar schools and hospitals.

Archbishop Cranmer was intrusted with the direction of the doctrinal part of the Reformation, and was assisted in his work by Bishops Ridley and Latimer. The mild character of the Primate inclined him to moderation. A simple service in the English language was substituted for the celebration of the mass.

But the most important step in promoting the English Reformation was the compilation of the *Book of Common Prayer*, by Archbishop Cranmer, who took the old Latin service as the basis of his work, and retained many of the prayers of the Romish Church, in order to conciliate those who were still inclined to popery. It was first published in 1549, but in 1552 some alterations were made in it to suit the more radical Reformers; and this Book of Common Prayer is very similar to the one now used in the Church of England. As this book was printed in the English language, the English people soon learned to love a form of worship which they were able to understand and in which they could participate so intelligently; and it was made obligatory in all the churches in England.

About the same time Thomas Sternhold, an officer of the king's palace, displeased by the silly and profane songs which he was accustomed to hearing the courtiers sing, and thinking that he should do them a kindness by furnishing them with something better, translated David's Psalms into English verse, with the aid of a schoolmaster named Hopkins. These Psalms were at first sung to the tune of songs, but as they soon became popular they were adapted to church music, and were placed at the end of the Book of Common Prayer.

In order to secure a general conformity in religion in England, Archbishop Cranmer drew up forty-two articles, which have been slightly modified in the *Thirty-nine Articles*, which form a short summary of the doctrines of the Church of England. The English nation at large was in a great measure brought to a seeming conformity to the new state-religion, Protestant Episcopal in form, and known as the *Church of England*. Some adopted the Protestant religion from conviction of its truth; some because it was the state-religion; while those who had obtained grants of abbey lands warmly sustained the Protector, fearing that they should be obliged to refund their share of the plunder in case of a Catholic restoration.

Only two persons perished at the stake during the reign of Edward VI., but many who refused to conform to the Protestant worship were punished with imprisonment. Bishop Gardiner was the most prominent of the Papists who were thus incarcerated for refusing to conform to the new state-religion. The Princess Mary, the boy king's half-sister, was a rigid Romanist, and refused to conform to the religion of the government; whereupon her chaplains were imprisoned, and the princess herself was threatened with imprisonment; but when she appealed to her cousin, the Emperor Charles V., and attempted to escape from England, it was considered prudent to permit her to worship God according to the dictates of her conscience, on condition that she did so privately in her own house—a concession which caused the young king to shed many tears.

The Duke of Somerset did not possess talents equal to his ambition; and as early as 1547, while he was conducting his campaign in Scotland, he received intelligence of some designs to remove him from the Protectorship. The malcontents were headed by his own brother, Lord Seymour, who aspired to supplant the Protector.

Seymour was a brilliant courtier, who

possessed great powers of flattery, and had so won the good opinion of the widowed queen, Catharine Parr, that she married him very soon after the death of her second husband, King Henry VIII.; but she lived only one year after her third marriage. Seymour then had the presumption to pay his addresses to the Princess Elizabeth, and it is believed would have succeeded in his suit had not other officers of state opposed it.

Seymour openly opposed his brother's authority, and induced a powerful party of noblemen to join him. He was encouraged in this course by Dudley, Earl of Warwick, son of that wicked Dudley who had served Henry VII. so dishonorably. Dudley, who hoped to raise himself by the ruin of both the brothers, induced Seymour to commit some violent actions, and then persuaded the Duke of Somerset to have him arrested for high treason. Seymour was tried and condemned without a hearing, and was executed on Tower Hill, March 20, 1549.

The destruction of the religious houses was a very severe measure to a great many people. Some of the abbots were allowed small pensions for their support, but the monks and nuns who were turned adrift were a helpless class who could do very little for their own maintenance. This measure was also a harsh proceeding toward those farmers who had occupied the Church lands at cheap rents. A larger class of sufferers were the idle poor, who had been fed daily at the convent gates, and scarcely knew how to work. All these were now obliged to earn their daily bread by labor.

Besides the distresses of these classes already mentioned, the industrious poor suffered greatly from a change in the system of agriculture about this time. Many arable farms were converted into sheep pastures, on account of the high price of wool, thus producing a scarcity of corn and a lessened demand for labor. These causes produced insurrections and tumults in various parts of England during the year 1549.

The most important of the peasant revolts was that of Robert Ket, at the head of twenty thousand men in Norfolk. Ket established himself at Norwich, as judge and lawgiver for all the surrounding country, making his headquarters under an oak tree, which he called the "Tree of the Reformation." The revolts were suppressed with the usual barbarities, and the "Tree of the Reformation" served as a gallows.

The Protector really felt a pity for the poor, and did all in his power to relieve their distresses; and the commotions were quelled. But the Protector offended the nobles by the great state and dignity which he assumed. He likewise displeased the people of London by demolishing a church to erect a magnificent palace upon its site. After being the residence of many royal personages, this palace was pulled down in 1775, and a grand edifice for the accommodations of public officers was erected on its site, but the name of *Somerset House* was still retained.

Dudley, Earl of Warwick, increased his fame and power by his stern suppression of the peasant revolts. He now headed a league of nobles against the Duke of Somerset, who was believed to sympathize with the rebel peasants. As the Duke of Somerset was now deserted by all except Archbishop Cranmer and his secretary, Paget, he resigned his office of Protector. The fallen Protector was also deprived of all his other offices, heavily fined and imprisoned. The government was then intrusted to a Council of Regency under the presidency of the Earl of Warwick.

Not satisfied with the overthrow of the Duke of Somerset, the Earl of Warwick accused the fallen Protector of a design to excite a rebellion, in 1551, and caused him to be again arrested, tried and condemned for high treason, and beheaded on Tower Hill. His cruel fate produced grief and sorrow among the common people, to whom his goodness of heart had much endeared him. When his head fell by the blow of the headsman's ax many rushed to the scaffold to dip their handkerchiefs in his blood, and these handkerchiefs were preserved as memorials of the unfortunate statesman.

Under Dudley, Earl of Warwick, the

Reformation in England was carried on with more intemperate zeal than it had been under the Duke of Somerset. The good Archbishop Cranmer sought to preserve to the Popish clergy the scanty provision that still remained to them; but his integrity was no match for the avarice of the despoilers, whose rapacity spared no one. Under pretense of searching for forbidden books, the libraries of the Universities of Oxford and Westminster were rummaged, and all the books with gold and silver ornaments were seized and destroyed as superstitious relics.

Dudley, Earl of Warwick, was now the real ruler of England, and his ambition knew no bounds. The boy king was completely in his power, and conferred on him the vast earldom of Northumberland with the title of Duke, that earldom having been confiscated to the crown. But Dudley's ambition soared still higher, and he desired to raise his descendants to the throne of England.

The delicate Edward VI., who was a youth of such remarkable promise and of such great sweetness of character, was in consumption; and, as his health was rapidly declining, it was known that he had not long to live. Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, who had gained the boy king's entire confidence, persuaded him to alter the succession by depriving his two half-sisters of the English crown, and to make a will bequeathing the crown to Lady Jane Grey, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk, and granddaughter of Charles Francis Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, and his wife, Mary Tudor, the youngest sister of Henry VIII.

This will was unlawful, as it was a violation of the will of Henry VIII., and as it had not received the sanction of Parliament; but it was signed by all the great officers of state. When some of them hesitated to do so, the Duke of Northumberland violently declared that he would fight anybody in his shirt in so just a cause as that of Lady Jane Grey's succession. Archbishop Cranmer only yielded his consent to the youthful king's pathetic entreaties; and Sir James Hales, one of the judges, positively refused.

In making Lady Jane Grey his heir, Edward VI. was concerned for the security of the Protestant religion in England; Lady Jane being a Protestant, while his sister Mary was so zealous a Papist that she still continued to hold Catholic services at her own house in defiance of the authorities. But the motives of the ambitious Duke of Northumberland were more selfish than those of the youthful king. He had married his own son, Lord Guilford Dudley, to Lady Jane Grey, thus securing the succession to his own descendants.

The health of Edward VI. now declined more rapidly than ever; and the Duke of Northumberland, affecting an anxious concern for him and waiting on him with the most assiduous zeal, dismissed his physicians, and placed him under the care of an ignorant old woman, who promised a wonderful and speedy cure. Under her treatment he died, July 6, 1553, in the sixteenth year of his age and the seventh of his reign. England sincerely mourned this amiable boy, as his childish virtues had given hopes of a happy reign. As his health began to decline rapidly after Robert Dudley, son of the Duke of Northumberland and afterward so famous as Earl of Leicester, was in close attendance upon him, the suspicions of the people attributed his death to slow poison administered by the Dudleys.

The Duke of Northumberland had intended to have the death of Edward VI. kept secret until he could secure the arrest of the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth. He at once sent a message to Mary, desiring her presence during her brother's last hours; but Mary was opportunely warned of her danger by faithful friends, and escaped into Suffolk, sending orders to the Council of Regency to proclaim her Queen of England, and preparing to assert her rights by force of arms.

The Duke of Northumberland could no longer delay his desperate scheme. He proceeded in great state to the residence of Lady Jane Grey and saluted her as Queen of England, July 10, 1553. She received this announcement with grief and surprise,

and remonstrated with her father-in-law, pleading the superior claims of her cousins Mary and Elizabeth, or even those of the little Mary, Queen of Scots; but, as she was of a timid and gentle disposition, her scruples were soon overcome by the entreaties of her father-in-law, her father and her husband, and she suffered herself to be proclaimed queen. She, however, endured the cares of royalty only during a brief, joyless reign of ten days, July 10–19, 1553.

Lady Jane Grey was recognized as queen only by a small circle of immediate attendants, as the English people dreaded the bold ambition of the Duke of Northumberland more than they did the stern bigotry of the Catholic Princess Mary. The usurpation of the Duke of Northumberland therefore did not meet the approval of the people, who quickly rallied to the support of Mary, who was universally considered the rightful heir to the English throne.

MARY entered London amid the joyful acclamations of the populace, and was at once proclaimed Queen of England, Lady Jane Grey returning to the privacy of her own house, July 19, 1553. In the midst of these popular demonstrations of loyalty to the rightful queen, Mary's half-sister Elizabeth came to meet her with a thousand horsemen whom she had mustered in support of their common cause.

Lady Jane Grey gladly resigned the crown which she had so reluctantly assumed, and disappeared wholly from the public view, passing her time in the delightful pursuits of learning. As she was of the same age as the late king she had received all her education with him, and even appeared to possess greater facility in acquiring knowledge. Though she was then only sixteen years of age, she could speak fluently Latin, Greek, French and Italian, and had some acquaintance with Hebrew, Chaldee and Arabic. She was a singularly excellent woman, beautiful in person, sweet and guileless in disposition, gifted in conversation, and was better fitted to adorn domestic and literary than courtly circles.

Roger Ascham, the tutor to the Princess Elizabeth, once paid Lady Jane Grey a visit, and found her engaged in reading Plato, while the rest of the family were with a hunting party in the park; and when he admired the singularity of her choice she told him that she derived more pleasure from that author than the others could reap from all their sport and gayety. It is also said that on this occasion she told Ascham that she applied to study as a refuge from the severity of her parents, who used to so sharply taunt her and give her "pinches, nips and bobs," if she displeased them in the slightest degree, that she was in constant misery in their presence.

Mary was in her thirty-seventh year when she became Queen of England. She possessed few estimable or amiable qualities, and her person was no more engaging than her conduct and address. She inherited her mother's gravity with her father's violence and obstinate temper, and the natural moroseness of her temper had been increased by the early mortifications to which she had been subjected. Her education had been almost entirely neglected. She had mainly lived in a sort of confinement during her father's life; and though she had been more at liberty during her half-brother's reign she had still led a life of seclusion and dullness, while constant intercourse and the greatest affection subsisted between Edward VI. and his other half-sister Elizabeth.

The first act of Mary's reign was the release of the old Duke of Norfolk, who had languished in prison, with the unexecuted death-sentence hanging over his head, ever since the death of Henry VIII. The guilty Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, who had tried to deprive her of her royal inheritance, was at once arrested, tried, condemned and beheaded for high treason; and he died declaring himself a Roman Catholic. Two of his accomplices in the treason also died by the headsman's ax.

The innocent but unfortunate Lady Jane Grey and her youthful husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, were arrested and imprisoned in the Tower. Both were condemned to death, but on account of their youth and

innocence their lives were spared for the time. Renard, the Spanish ambassador in England, whose evil counsels were largely the cause of the misery of Mary's reign, advised the queen to have them executed at once; but she declined to act on his advice at that time.

Although she was a bigoted Catholic, Mary began her reign with a solemn promise not to overturn the Protestant State Church of England; but she soon violated this pledge by reinstating Gardiner, Bonner and Tonstall in their respective bishoprics, of which they had been deprived during her half-brother's reign. With the assistance of these men, she proceeded to undo the work of the English Reformation and to restore the Popish religion in England, thus replacing everything on its old footing. Her first Parliament was opened with a Latin mass, in utter violation of laws still in force; and the same Parliament repealed all the statutes of the reign of Edward VI. in favor of the Protestant religion.

As Queen Mary had associated all the wrongs and sorrows of her childhood with the Reformation in England, it is not strange that she derived from her unhappy mother a fervent zeal for the Romish Church and a fierce prejudice against the Protestants. She was supported by many of her subjects with whom the rapacity of the Dukes of Somerset and Northumberland had brought the Protestant movement into discredit.

Gardiner was made Chancellor, and the Archbishop of York and five other prelates were imprisoned. All clergymen in England were ordered to abstain from preaching until each received a special license from the queen's government, and many of them were deprived of their livings. Mary sent ambassadors to Pope Julius III., assuring him of her desire to restore her kingdom to its old allegiance to the Head of Christendom.

Seeing the approaching storm, the foreign Protestants in England hastily fled from the kingdom, and the country was thus deprived of the services of some of the most skillful artisans and mechanics. Many English Reformers also fled to foreign lands, as did many Protestant English gentlemen. Archbishop Cranmer was advised to leave the kingdom, but he said that he had too deep a concern in every measure of the Reformation to desert its cause in such a crisis.

Queen Mary had from the first marked the good Primate for destruction. She hated Cranmer for his share in her mother's divorce; and, as she was of a disposition never to forgive an injury, all the good offices which Cranmer had done to herself could never, in her estimation, atone for that one act of his. She very well knew that the good archbishop had saved her from her father's wrath on many an occasion. Henry VIII. had once resolved to put her to death, and her life was only spared by Cranmer's remonstrances, while the time-serving Gardiner stood by without uttering a word in her behalf; but all these things made no impression upon the bigoted queen, and Cranmer was imprisoned in the common jail at Oxford. Gardiner's intervention spared the Primate's life for the time, Gardiner knowing that the queen intended to appoint Cardinal Pole to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury upon Cranmer's death.

Mary's half-sister Elizabeth, who was a Protestant, was ordered to embrace the Catholic faith; and her life was in peril during the whole of Mary's reign. She was detained a prisoner, but escaped the queen's vengeance by dissembling her real sentiments.

As soon as the Emperor Charles V. heard that his cousin had become Queen of England he sent to propose to her a marriage with his only son Philip, a bigoted Catholic like herself. Although nearly all Mary's counselors opposed the match, the queen readily consented. The wisest statesmen in England dreaded the immense power of Spain, whose king was also sovereign of Italy, Germany and the Netherlands, and was believed to be aiming at universal dominion; and the English people were well aware of Philip's cruelty and misanthropy.

Although it was agreed that neither Philip nor any other foreigner should have any share in the government, the public alarm in England was so great that a formidable insurrection broke out in Kent, under the leadership of Sir Thomas Wyatt, who had traveled in Spain and brought home such an account of Philip as added to the horror already entertained of him. The avowed design of the rebels was to dethrone Mary and to place Lady Jane Grey upon the English throne, but the movement failed for want of an efficient leader. The rebels dispersed; and Sir Thomas Wyatt and the Duke of Suffolk, with about four hundred others, were seized and executed.

LADY JANE GREY.

This ill-advised rebellion sealed the fate of Lady Jane Grey, whose misfortune it was always to suffer for the faults of her partisans. She was warned to prepare for death. Her constancy to the Protestant religion remained unshaken, and she passed some of the little time left her in writing a farewell letter in Greek to her sister, exhorting her to remain firm in the Protestant faith. Her youthful husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, was also condemned to death; and he entreated to have a parting interview with his wife; but Lady Jane refused, as she feared that the affliction of such a meeting would overcome their fortitude. She replied to her husband's entreaty by saying that their separation would only be for a moment, and that they would soon rejoin each other in a scene where their affections would be forever united, and where nothing could have access to disturb their eternal happiness.

From her window in the Tower, Lady Jane saw her husband's headless body carried away, and she followed him to the scaffold a few hours later, February 12, 1554. She appeared on the scaffold with a serene countenance, and declared that she had committed a great error in not having more firmly refused the crown, but that the cause of her fault had been filial reverence, and not her own ambition. Such was the sad fate of Lady Jane Grey and her husband, both of whom were only seventeen years of age when brought to the block, and whose brief career furnishes one of the most pathetic stories in English history. Her father was beheaded soon afterward, and the suspicious queen filled the prisons with nobles and gentlemen.

The Princess Elizabeth and Courtenay, Earl of Devonshire, great-grandson of King Edward IV., were suspected of aspiring to the English throne, and were arrested and committed to the Tower. Renard, the Spanish ambassador in England, earnestly endeavored to persuade Queen Mary to put her half-sister to death; but, as there was no evidence to convict Elizabeth of treason, Mary did not dare to venture on so extreme a proceeding, and merely imprisoned her for a time at Woodstock.

Having thus suppressed all opposition to her authority in her kingdom, Queen Mary sent a fleet to escort Philip of Spain to England; but the admiral informed her that he dare not receive the Spanish prince on board his fleet, lest the sailors should commit some violence against him; in such detestation was he held. Finally Philip arrived in England in a vessel of his own, and the marriage took place at Winchester in July, 1554. A long train of wagon-loads of Spanish gold and silver preceded Philip to London.

The English Parliament agreed that

Philip should be called King of England during the life of Mary, but stoutly refused to permit him to be crowned or to succeed the queen in case of her death without heirs. The whole English nation distrusted Philip, whose cold and reserved demeanor increased his unpopularity; and the cruelty with which Mary had removed those whom she regarded as her enemies had made her universally hated by her subjects.

Philip's ruling passion was ambition; and Mary, who was slavishly devoted to her husband, soon realized that the best way to retain his affection was to help him to become master of England. The evils of Mary's reign would have been increased by the sacrifice of her kingdom to her fondness for her husband, had not Parliament, which was so subservient to the queen in other respects, resolutely maintained the independence of England. During this entire reign Parliament was mainly engaged in guarding against Philip's encroachments, while Mary's only anxiety was to increase her husband's power and influence. Although she doted on him with a troublesome fondness, he found it difficult to conceal his own dislike for his unengaging companion.

There was, however, one point upon which Queen Mary and her Spanish husband were agreed—the restoration of the Roman Catholic Church as the state-religion of England, and the extirpation of Protestantism by the most violent and sanguinary means. Pope Julius III. at first hesitated about receiving such a kingdom of heretics as England within the pale of the Romish Church; but Queen Mary's marriage with so zealous a Catholic as Philip of Spain was followed by a reconciliation between England and the Vatican; and the queen's cousin, Cardinal Reginald Pole, who had so long lived in exile from his native land, was appointed the Pope's legate in England.

Upon his arrival in the kingdom the legate was welcomed with great pomp and solemnity by Parliament. To his invitation to reconcile themselves and the kingdom with the Pope, both Houses of Parliament replied with compliant addresses. Then Lords and Commons, all on their knees, in the palace of Whitehall, November 30, 1554, received from the legate, in the Pope's name, absolution and forgiveness for the sin of the English nation in asserting its independence of the Pope, and they and the kingdom were tenderly received back into the bosom of the Roman Catholic Church.

Although the subservient Parliament passed statute after statute repealing all the legislation of the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. in favor of the Protestant religion, it refused to reëstablish the religious houses and to restore their lands to them; but Mary, more zealous than her subjects, conscientiously restored to the Romish Church such of the confiscated ecclesiastical property as remained in the possession of the crown. Parliament also reenacted the old laws of the reigns of Henry IV. and Henry V. against heretics.

Cardinal Pole, the papal legate, was a man of gentle and Christian disposition, who, although zealously assisting to restore the Catholic faith and worship, constantly besought mercy toward the unreconciled. But Queen Mary and her husband were determined that the English people should be forced to conform to the Romish doctrine and worship; and, under the counsels of the cruel Bishop Gardiner, her Chancellor, the queen inaugurated a system of the most terrible and unrelenting persecution, consigning England's most holy and venerable men to the flames. Gardiner soon became so disgusted with the horrid task that he resigned it to the brutal Bonner, Bishop of London, a man of such inhumanity that he himself frequently acted as executioner because he delighted to see the dying agonies of the victims.

The persecution lasted three years, beginning in 1555, and ending with the close of Mary's reign in 1558. During these three terrible years for England multitudes of Protestants perished by the ax and by fire, martyrs to their religion; while thousands suffered fines, imprisonment and lesser penalties. Great numbers fled to foreign

lands. No regular form of trial was observed. Victims were arrested on suspicion, and if they refused to sign certain articles they were immediately condemned to death by fire.

In all, two hundred and seventy-seven Protestants sealed their faith in their religion by martyrdom at the stake. This dismal list of martyrs embraced one archbishop, four bishops, twenty-one clergymen, eight lay gentlemen, eighty-four tradesmen, one hundred farmers, servants and laborers, fifty-five women and four children. "Bloody Queen Mary"—as she was called on account of these persecutions—justified her cruel policy in these words: "If heretics are burned in the next world, why have I not the right to burn them in this world?" Many of the worst practices of the Spanish Inquisition were introduced into England, to the indignation and disgust of the nation.

The first of these Protestant martyrs was John Rogers, one of the foremost preachers of the English Reformation, who was burned at Smithfield in 1555 for denying the doctrine of transubstantiation. Another was Dr. Rowland Taylor, the Vicar of Hadleigh, who perished at the stake with the most heroic fortitude at Oldham Common, amid the tears and lamentations of the spectators. John Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, was burned in his own cathedral city; and Ferrars, Bishop of St. David's, perished at the stake at Caermarthen, in Wales. When Hooper was tied to the stake the queen's pardon was placed on the stool before him; and if he would have recanted, all that was necessary for him to do was to stretch forth his hand to save his life; but he refused to purchase it at such a sacrifice of honest principle.

Among the most illustrious of these martyrs were Bishop Latimer of Worcester and Bishop Ridley of London, who suffered together at Oxford. As side by side they were chained to the iron stake and surrounded by blazing fagots, they exhibited a fortitude and constancy unsurpassed in the world's annals. As the flames shot up around them the venerable Latimer thus addressed his friend: "Be of good cheer, Brother Ridley, and play the man; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out."

So implacable was Gardiner's hatred of Latimer and Ridley that on the day of their martyrdom he had made a vow that he would not dine until he received information that fire was set to the fagots with which they were to be burned. The messenger did not arrive as soon as he expected, but Gardiner would not break his vow. So he kept the old Duke of Norfolk, who was his guest that day, waiting from eleven—then the usual dinner hour—until three o'clock. When, however, the desired intelligence arrived and the dinner was served, Gardiner did not partake of it; as he was attacked with a sudden illness and carried to his bed, which he never left alive.

Gardiner had all along stood between the queen and Cranmer's death, as he did not want Cardinal Pole advanced to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury, because the cardinal's mild and benignant disposition always led him to oppose Gardiner's violent and sanguinary counsels. Now, as Gardiner was no more, there was no opposition to the queen's desire that Archbishop Cranmer should also suffer death as a heretic, and he was accordingly condemned to be burned at Oxford

But Queen Mary's resentment went so far that she wished to degrade the honored Primate in the estimation of the whole world, and she accordingly employed people to persuade Cranmer that his life was so valuable to his country that he ought to save it by any means. These individuals were likewise authorized to promise the good archbishop a pardon if he would recant—a promise which Mary never intended to keep.

In a moment of weakness Cranmer signed a paper expressing his belief in the Catholic doctrines; but the queen informed him that this was not sufficient, and that he must acknowledge his errors publicly in the church. Cranmer's strength of mind now

returned; and when he was brought forth to make his public recantation he declined to do so, but bewailed his weakness and asserted his firm belief in the Protestant faith. Thereupon he was instantly led to the stake.

When the fagots were in a blaze he stretched out his right hand, with which he had signed the paper of recantation, and held it in the flames until it was burned off, saying frequently: "This is the hand that has offended." Then his countenance became peacefully serene, as if his mind were more at ease for having made such atonement, and he seemed insensible to all worldly suffering.

The next day Cardinal Pole was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and he displayed so much lenity toward the Protestants that he excited the displeasure of Pope Paul IV.

Cranmer's martyrdom had a most injurious effect upon the Catholic cause in England. Thousands had witnessed the heroic fortitude with which he had suffered at the stake, and all England mourned the good archbishop. So much popular sympathy was shown to the martyrs that the bigoted queen issued a proclamation forbidding her subjects to approach, speak to, or comfort heretics who were on their way to execution. But this command was totally disregarded, as the English people deeply resented Mary's cruelties, which were utterly repugnant to their feelings. The title of "Bloody Mary" expressed the English people's detestation of their cruel Catholic queen, and her Spanish husband was hated to a still greater degree.

Latimer's prophetic words at the stake were speedily fulfilled. The fires of persecution kindled anew the zeal and devotion of the English Reformers, and for every life that perished in martyrdom there were a hundred converts to Protestantism. Says Hume: "Each martyrdom was equivalent to a hundred sermons against popery; and men either avoided such horrid spectacles, or returned from them full of a violent though secret indignation against the persecutors."

Queen Mary's marriage was an unhappy one. She was a small, haggard, sickly woman, eleven years older than her husband. The marriage had been one of policy on his part. His wife was passionately fond and very jealous of him, but he did not reciprocate her affection. Becoming weary of her jealous fondness, and disgusted with the enmity and suspicion which he had excited in England, he departed to Flanders in 1555; and, upon the abdication of his father, the Emperor Charles V., in the fall of that year, he became King of Spain, Naples and Sicily, and lord of the Netherlands and Spanish America, with the title of Philip II., as noticed in a preceding section.

Seeing herself treated with neglect and indifference by her husband, Queen Mary passed her time in lamentations and in writing long letters to him, which he never condescended to answer. The more he slighted her the more she doted on him; and she burdened her subjects with oppressive taxes to obtain money, in the hope of winning him back.

Philip II., who had his father's ambition without his talents, sought to secure the alliance of England in his war with France. Queen Mary could not obtain her Council's consent to join her husband in the war. But when Philip came to London in 1556, and told his wife that he would never set foot in England again unless she declared war against France, Mary, almost frantic with the fear of losing her husband, pressed the matter so urgently as to overcome the strenuous opposition of her Council and Parliament, and war was declared against France.

As Mary's resources were already exhausted in furnishing Philip with money, she was obliged to resort to the most unjust and arbitrary expedients to wring money from her subjects, and an English force of ten thousand men was sent into Flanders to aid Philip. To prevent a rebellion of her subjects, Mary caused many of the leading gentry to be imprisoned, and adopted the Spanish custom of having them seized in the night and carried away hoodwinked, so that they might not be known nor see to what place they were conducted.

The English troops assisted the Spaniards in gaining their victory over the French in the battle of St. Quentin in 1557; but Calais —which had belonged to England for two centuries, and was "the brightest jewel in her crown"—was surprised and captured by the French under Francis, Duke of Guise, after a siege of only eight days, January 8, 1558. The news of the loss of this last remaining stronghold of England on the Continent of Europe—this last remaining trophy of the conquests of Edward III.—spread dismay throughout England; and poor Queen Mary, pining away with illness and her husband's neglect, declared that at her death the word "Calais" would be found engraved on her heart.

It is impossible not to pity this unhappy Queen of England, notwithstanding her atrocious cruelties. She was hated and cursed by her subjects with a bitterness which words fail to express. Her knowledge of this fact caused her an untold amount of suffering. Her husband, utterly tired of her, remained on the Continent of Europe, and paid no attention to the piteous letters which she constantly addressed to him. Her subjects manifested their hatred of her by means of libels, lampoons and ribald ballads, which were dropped by unknown persons where she would be sure to find them. While reading them she would give way to outbursts of despairing fury, and then retire to her chamber to weep away her sorrow. She would sit on the floor there for hours, with her knees drawn up to her face. Then she would rouse herself and wander restlessly about the corridors of the palace, or write those sorrowful, tear-blotted letters to her husband by which she vainly sought to move his hardened heart.

Vexation of mind and feebleness of body threw the unhappy queen into a fever, which ended her miserable life and her wretched reign, November 17, 1558, in the forty-third year of her age and the sixth of her reign. Her death—which was followed on the same day by that of Cardinal Pole, who left an unsullied name behind him—was hailed throughout the kingdom with popular demonstrations of joy, as it ended the Pope's power in England forever.

Mary was a kind mistress to her immediate household, and her cruel persecutions were the result of her mistaken sense of duty. She conscientiously believed it her duty to extirpate what she considered heresy and to reëstablish what she regarded as truth, by forcible means, if necessary. It must also be remembered that she associated all the wrongs and sorrows of her childhood with the English Reformation. Besides, she had been brought up in her father's court, which was as absolute as the court of an Oriental despot, and in which the king's whims disposed of the lives of his subjects. What makes her brief and unhappy reign appear so dark is the contrast of the bigotry and cruelty of her time with the religious freedom of our own day.

When Queen Mary's death was announced to Parliament, which was in session at the time, Lords and Commons sprang from their seats; and shouts of "God save Queen Elizabeth" resounded through the halls. When the news spread among the people of London their joy was so great that they hurried in crowds to Hatfield, where ELIZABETH was then residing, and escorted her in triumph to London; and her accession to the throne of England was greeted throughout the kingdom by pealing bells and blazing bonfires, this outburst of popular delight being undisguised even by decent respect for her predecessor's unhappy memory.

Elizabeth was twenty-five years of age when she became Queen of England. This daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn had her mother's beauty and gayety of disposition, as well as her father's frank and hearty address, along with his energetic intellect, dauntless courage and imperious will. She was tall and commanding in person, had a high and open forehead, an aquiline nose, a pale complexion, and rather yellowish hair. She was an accomplished scholar and a fine musician, and loved the healthful sports of archery and horsemanship.

The new queen appeared desirous of for-

getting her past sufferings, and never manifested any resentment toward those who had been instrumental in inflicting them. Even her severe and churlish jailor, Sir Richard Banefield, experienced no other punishment or rebuke than that of her telling him that she would give him the custody of any state prisoner whom she desired to have treated with more than ordinary severity. The brutal Bishop Bonner was the only one of her sister's counselors to whom she manifested any marked aversion. When he came to make his obeisance to her she turned from him with horror, refusing either to speak to him or look at him.

Elizabeth's accession to the English throne was the crisis of the Reformation in England and Scotland; and, as she was a Protestant, the first act of her reign was to restore the Protestant Church of England, which had been so cruelly overthrown by her Catholic predecessor. At the time of her accession England had been reduced to the deepest humiliation through defeat abroad and misgovernment at home; but Europe soon found that a strong and

QUEEN ELIZABETH OF ENGLAND IN EARLY LIFE.

vigorous hand wielded the destinies of that kingdom.

As Philip II. of Spain was the great champion of Roman Catholicism in Europe, so Queen Elizabeth, as the greatest of Protestant sovereigns, was looked upon by the Protestants in all lands as their protectress and leader. She was not always able to aid them to the full extent of her power, as she was menaced with perils and difficulties which obliged her to act with discretion and caution. Nevertheless, the assistance which she furnished to the Protestants of Scotland, France and the Netherlands during the wars of religion was of great service to the cause of the Reformation; and the moral influence of the alliance of the "Virgin Queen" of England was of inestimable importance to the struggling Protestants of those countries. Thus England under Queen Elizabeth was the counterpoise to the vast power of Spain during the last half of the sixteenth century, as France under King Francis I. had been during the first half.

England was very prosperous during Elizabeth's reign of forty-five years (1558–1603), making great advances in agriculture, manufactures, commerce, navigation and literature; and never had that kingdom a sovereign who swayed the scepter with more ability than did this mighty queen. Indeed Elizabeth is often ranked as the greatest of English sovereigns.

Elizabeth called the wisest men in England to her councils, and of these statesmen Walsingham and Burleigh enjoyed the greatest degree of her confidence. In restoring the Protestant religion Elizabeth proceeded with great prudence and caution, and effected her object without the shedding of a drop of blood or the confiscation of a single estate. On the very day that she entered London as queen the prison doors were opened wide to all who were confined for their religion, thus still further heightening the universal joy which hailed her accession.

The first Parliament of Elizabeth's reign reënacted all the laws of Edward VI. in favor of the Protestant religion, and made the Church of England, Protestant Episcopal in form, almost what it is at the present time. The *Act of Supremacy* required all bishops, clergy and officers of the crown to take an oath acknowledging the queen as the Supreme Head of the Church of England, and denying allegiance to all foreign authority. By foreign authority was meant the Pope.

All the bishops of Mary's reign but one refused to take this *Oath of Supremacy*, and were removed from their sees, their places being filled with the Protestant bishops who had fled to foreign lands to escape Mary's wrath and who were now recalled. Dr. Matthew Parker, a man eminent for his learning and piety, was made Archbishop of Canterbury. The parish priests, with few exceptions, took the required oath, and were not disturbed. As fast as their places became vacant they were filled with Protestant clergymen, so that all the pulpits in England came to be in sympathy with the state-religion in the course of time.

Parliament also passed the *Act of Uniformity*, requiring all the English people to attend the services of the Protestant State Church and to conform to its usages, and punishing with fine and imprisonment all who absented themselves from the services of that Church. Unable to submit to this law, many English Roman Catholics fled to foreign lands, where they menaced Elizabeth's throne and life by their constant plots during the whole period of her reign.

The *Thirty-nine Articles of Faith*, which were adopted as the creed of the Church of England, became the standard of religious belief. The Book of Common Prayer, somewhat improved, was restored to its former place in the religious service. The Scriptures were ordered to be read and prayers offered in the English language. Six great Bibles were placed in different parts of St. Paul's Cathedral, and whenever a reader could be found these were always surrounded by an eager crowd.

As the Anglican Church retained many of the practices and usages of the Romish Church, many English Protestants—adher-

ents of the Calvinistic faith—held aloof from the Established Church and organized under their presbyters and synods. They were called *Dissenters* and *Nonconformists*, because they dissented from, and refused to conform to, the doctrines and practices of the Established Church; and because they expressed their desire for a purer form of worship, and condemned all frivolous amusements as sinful, they were called, in derision, *Puritans*. For refusing to comply with the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, many were fined and imprisoned during Elizabeth's reign.

For the causes of the rise of the Puritans we must look to Mary's reign. The cruel persecutions of that bigoted Catholic queen had driven thousands of English Protestants into exile. Many of them took refuge at Geneva, where, under Calvin and the disciples of Zwingli, the Reformation had taken a more radical type than it had under Luther and Melanchthon in Germany, or under Cranmer and Sir Thomas Cromwell in England.

The Calvinists utterly discarded the surplice, the liturgy, the bishops of Episcopacy, and every form of ceremony peculiar to the Church of Rome. The Calvinists even banished that beautiful symbol, the Cross, from religious worship and from the churches themselves, as that emblem was an abomination in their eyes. They also turned "Merry Christmas," the joyful anniversary of the Savior's birth, into a solemn fast, because both Cross and Christmas were so intimately associated with the Papacy.

Upon Elizabeth's accession these English exiles returned to their native land, bringing with them the plainer worship and the stricter mode of life which they had learned to love abroad. The severe simplicity and purity of their religious faith became the rule and practice of their daily life, and produced a character of the type of ancient Sparta, of the mould of early republican Rome. Puritanism was a reform of Episcopacy, as Episcopacy had been a reform of Catholicism; Episcopacy thus being the mean between the two extremes—retaining many of the forms and ceremonies of Romanism, while its system of faith was identical with that of the Puritans.

Puritanism partook of the narrowness and bigotry of the age in which it flourished; but, notwithstanding this fact, there is a grandeur in the development of Puritanism in England during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, as there also is in the growth of Calvinism in the neighboring countries. The painful but inspiring story of the Puritans of England, the Covenanters of Scotland and the Huguenots of France—the story of their sublime fortitude, patience and suffering, as they obeyed the simple dictates of conscience with unquestioning faith—this story stirs the soul, ennobles our conceptions of humanity, deepens our faith in virtue and our trust in truth.

Religion was to these Puritans an intensely personal matter. Though they shrank from no sacrifice, their devotion to their religion was the devotion of rational beings, not that of blind devotees. The one great fact of Puritan life was the consciousness of the Divine Presence, as nothing stood between their souls and their God. Their thoughts were occupied with questions of individual responsibility and individual duty. Life became an incessant and endless struggle to them. They displayed unconscious heroism with the deepest humility, and achieved the grandest results without thinking of worldly fame, as they were inspired by constant meditation on the sublime realities with which they came in contact, but were sobered in spirit by a sense of personal unworthiness.

At first the Puritans had no desire to separate themselves from the English State Church, but strove to ingraft their ideas in the doctrines and ritual of that Church. Some of the more radical Puritans objected to the government of the Church by bishops. When they became conscious of their inability to carry out their desires they commenced withdrawing from the Established Church and holding meetings of their own. Near the end of Elizabeth's reign they openly seceded from the Anglican Church,

as a distinct sect, under the name of *Independents*. Queen Elizabeth appointed a *Court of High Commission* to enforce the Act of Uniformity; and the Puritans, or Independents, as Dissenters and Nonconformists, were punished by fine and imprisonment, but they held on to their doctrines with a constancy and a devotion inspired by a conviction of their truth.

Notwithstanding the Puritan defection from the State Church of England, the English Protestants presented an unbroken front to the Pope and to their Catholic enemies both in and out of England. The Puritans never wavered in their loyalty to Queen Elizabeth, but gave their unflinching support to her in the great trials to which England was subjected by the religious and political animosity of the Pope and of Philip II. of Spain.

As soon as Philip II. of Spain heard of his wife's death he proposed to marry her sister. But Elizabeth was too well aware of the aversion of her subjects to the Spanish match; and, besides, she was now in the same relation to Philip II. that her father had been to Catharine of Aragon upon the death of his brother Arthur. The very ground of her mother's claim as wife, and her own as queen, was the decision that such a marriage is unlawful. But as she did not wish to offend the most powerful monarch in Christendom, she returned a polite but evasive answer; and soon afterward she announced to Parliament her determination never to marry. She never wavered long from this decision, though many royal and princely suitors sought her hand at various times. This was perhaps a wise resolve on her part, as it enabled her to be more independent and freer to carry out her vigorous policy.

The war which England, in alliance with Spain, had waged against France during Mary's reign was closed by the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis in 1559, by which France retained Calais; but there was no return of good feeling; and it was thenceforth that Europe was divided between two great religious parties, Queen Elizabeth being the recognized head of the Protestant interests, while Philip II. of Spain was the acknowledged champion of Roman Catholicism. Offended at Elizabeth's refusal to marry him, Philip II. became her implacable enemy.

Mary Stuart, the young Queen of Scotland, who had spent most of her girlhood at the French court, where she was educated, became the wife of the Dauphin in 1558; and, upon the death of his father, King Henry II. of France, July 10, 1559, her young husband became King of France with the title of Francis II. Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland by inheritance, Queen of France by marriage, now adopted the title and arms of Queen of England, with the approval of the Pope, who publicly denied Elizabeth's claim as queen and her mother's as wife. Mary was the next heir to the English throne after Elizabeth; and she was regarded by the Catholics both in and out of England as the rightful sovereign of that kingdom, because Elizabeth's mother had never been recognized by the Romish Church as a lawful wife of Henry VIII., and Elizabeth was therefore regarded by them as an illegitimate child and therefore as incapable of inheriting the English crown.

When Francis II. and Mary Stuart, upon their accession in 1559, had by the Pope's command assumed upon their arms and equipage the title of "King and Queen of France, Scotland and England," Elizabeth remonstrated through her ambassador at Paris, but received no satisfaction. It was evident that the royal couple who wore the crowns of France and Scotland would seize the first opportunity to enforce their claim to the English crown.

In the meantime the Reformation had advanced with rapid strides in Scotland under the preaching of that great Apostle of Calvinism, the celebrated John Knox, who had returned from Geneva full of zeal for the Calvinistic doctrines. In 1557 the Scottish Reformers leagued themselves under the title of the *Lords of the Congregation*, and the agreement which they thus signed is known as the *First Covenant*.

The Scottish queen's mother, Mary of Guise, was regent of Scotland; and the Guises, whose influence ruled both France and Scotland, sought to crush the Reformation in both kingdoms. French troops were accordingly sent to Scotland to sustain the regent in extirpating heresy and strengthening the French interests in that kingdom. In 1559 the Lords of the Congregation appealed to Queen Elizabeth, ordered all French troops to retire from Scotland, and required Mary of Guise to resign the regency.

In 1560 Elizabeth, conscious that her own throne, as well as the Protestant religion, were menaced by the action of France, sent an English army into Scotland to aid the Reformers. The English fleet and army besieged the French army in Leith and took the city; and by the Treaty of Edinburgh, which followed, the King and Queen of France and Scotland were obliged to renounce all claims to the crown of England during the life-time of Elizabeth, the French troops were withdrawn from Scotland, and foreigners were excluded from office in that kingdom.

Elizabeth's vigorous action against French influence and in support of the Reformation in Scotland raised the prestige of England's queen to a high degree throughout Europe. The Reformation now achieved its triumph in Scotland by the action of the Lords of the Congregation, who assembled the Scottish Parliament, which at once abolished the mass, cast off Scotland's allegiance to the Pope, and renewed the alliance with the Queen of England.

The premature death of Francis II. of France, in 1560, ended all danger of a war between England and France on account of his widowed queen's claims to the English crown; but Mary, in accordance with the advice of her uncle, Francis, Duke of Guise, refused to surrender formally those claims; and she had not yet, as Queen of Scotland, ratified the Treaty of Edinburgh, and persisted in her refusal until near the close of her life.

On the death of her husband, in 1560, Mary, although harshly treated by her mother-in-law, the wicked Catharine de Medici, still for a time remained in France, a land which she loved most dearly. Finally the clamors of her Scottish subjects induced Mary to leave her delightful France, and to return with great reluctance to the wild country of the Scots, which she was then to govern.

When Mary was ready to sail for Scotland she asked permission of Queen Elizabeth to pass through England on her way to her native and hereditary kingdom, but Elizabeth only consented on condition that the Queen of Scots ratified the Treaty of Edinburgh, thus renouncing all claim to the English crown. Appreciating the danger with which her crown was menaced by Mary's presence in Scotland, because the Catholics considered Mary's claim to the English crown superior to her own, Elizabeth stationed a fleet in the English Channel to intercept the Queen of Scots on her voyage to her own hereditary kingdom.

After embarking on her voyage to Scotland, Mary fixed her eyes on the coast of her beloved France until the darkness of night prevented her from seeing it any longer. Then she lay down to sleep on her couch on the deck of the vessel, giving orders that if the French coast was still visible on the return of daylight she should be awakened. The vessel made little progress during the night, thus enabling the Queen of Scots to have another parting view of the delightful land which she loved so well. Her regret at leaving that beautiful country was expressed in some pathetic French verses which she wrote at the time. The contrast between the country which she left and the one which she now came to govern increased her melancholy, and the rude and savage manners of the Scots filled her with disgust.

Eluding the English fleet in the Channel in a dense fog, Mary reached her native Scotland in safety, August, 1561; but she came home as a French woman—gay, brilliant, accomplished, and delighting in the elegant dissipations of Paris—not at all inclined to favor the severe manners which

triumphant Calvinism had made prevalent in Scotland. John Knox and the Lords of the Congregation, absorbed in their stern conflict with Romanism, had no tolerance for even the most innocent practices associated with the Catholic doctrines.

Queen Mary earnestly wished to unite all parties in Scotland against both French and English influence. She gave her confidence to the Scottish Reformers and commanded her subjects to attend Protestant worship; but, as she loved the rites in which she had been educated, she insisted upon having mass said in her private chapel. The Reformers regarded this as an abomination; and John Knox, in his zeal for Calvinism, denounced his queen as Jezebel and her priests as Satan's ministers.

The Queen of Scots being a Catholic and her kingdom Protestant, her position was a most uncomfortable one, as she found herself without the power to enforce her will in the midst of subjects bitterly hostile to her; and John Knox and the other Scottish Reformers treated her with a brutality from which her sex should have shielded her. Her unenviable situation was made worse by her utter lack of prudence.

Perceiving that she could not maintain her position without the friendship of the Queen of England, Mary opened a friendly correspondence with Elizabeth, but her course was so impolitic as to convince Elizabeth that the Queen of Scots still entertained designs upon the crown of England. Nevertheless, a nominal reconciliation was effected between the two queens, and they appeared to be the best of friends, calling themselves "loving sister" in their letters to each other, but all the while distrusting and disliking each other in the most womanly style.

Mary, having been urged by her council to a second marriage, paid Elizabeth the compliment of asking her to select a suitable companion for her. The Queen of England desired that her "loving sister" should remain a widow; and, after proposing several matches which she knew the Queen of Scots would not accept, Elizabeth was very much displeased and alarmed when Mary finally chose for herself in 1565, by marrying her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lennox. Darnley was a rigid Catholic, like Mary herself, and was after her the next heir to the crowns of both Scotland and England; and Mary had married him to unite all the Catholic forces in the two British kingdoms.

Mary's new husband was a weak-minded and dissolute youth, and soon disgusted his wife by his neglect, fickleness and jealousy. He conceived a violent hatred, inspired by jealousy, for Mary's private secretary, David Rizzio, an Italian singer, whom he accused of being the queen's lover. Darnley's jealous fury sought revenge, and at the head of a body of young nobles he forced his way into Holyrood Palace, at Edinburgh, and stabbed Rizzio to death as he sat at supper with the queen, A. D. 1566.

The Queen of Scots now burned with hatred against her husband and vowed vengeance against the murderers of her Italian secretary. Though she was apparently reconciled to her husband, she made the Earl of Bothwell, a bold, bad man, her confidential adviser, but paid her husband a visit when he was taken sick. One night after this visit—February 10, 1567—the people of Edinburgh were awakened by a terrible explosion. Darnley's house—known as the Kirk of Field—had been blown up by gunpowder, and his lifeless body was found at a distance. The Scottish people accused the Earl of Bothwell as the perpetrator of the horrible murder; and as Queen Mary married him three months later she was suspected of complicity in the crime.

Queen Mary's marriage with the Earl of Bothwell produced a rebellion of the Scotch people against her. The Earl of Bothwell fled from Scotland, and lived by piracy until he was thrown into prison in Denmark, where he became insane, and so remained the last ten years of his life. Queen Mary was now seized and imprisoned in a lonely castle in the island of Lochlevin, by her rebellious subjects, who compelled her to abdicate her crown in favor of her infant son,

James VI.; while her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, was appointed regent of the Scotch kingdom during the minority of her son. In 1568 Mary escaped from prison and raised an army to recover her lost authority, but was defeated by the Earl of Murray in a battle at Langside, whereupon she fled into England, to seek the protection of Queen Elizabeth, May 16, 1568.

The Queen of Scots demanded of Elizabeth either a passage to France, or an army to recover the Scottish throne. The English queen declined to receive Mary until she had cleared herself of the accusation of having been an accomplice in the murder of her second husband. Mary replied that she would gladly submit her cause to the arbitration of so good a friend; but when her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, the regent of Scotland, laid before the English commissioners Mary's own letters to the Earl of Bothwell, containing her consent to Lord Darnley's death and the earl's seizure of herself, Mary, as an independent sovereign, refused to submit to a trial by an English tribunal, and was therefore detained as a state prisoner in England by order of Queen Elizabeth.

The English queen was induced to take this step by the advice of her Prime Minister, Cecil, Lord Burleigh, who pointed out the danger of permitting the Queen of Scots to pass over to France, where she would be the center of every Catholic plot against England's Protestant queen. Mary's captivity in England, which lasted nineteen years, aggravated the very danger which Elizabeth's Prime Minister sought to avoid.

The Queen of Scots soon made good her word that her captors should have enough to do with her, as she became the center of innumerable Catholic plots against Elizabeth's throne and life. The Duke of Norfolk, the leader of the Catholic party in England, who hoped to marry the Queen of Scots, was detected in a conspiracy to place Mary on the English throne, and was imprisoned in 1569 and beheaded in 1572.

In 1569 the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland headed a rebellion of the English Roman Catholics against Queen Elizabeth, with the object of liberating the Queen of Scots and restoring the Popish religion in England; but, as the Catholic masses of England, turning a deaf ear to Pope, Jesuit and noble, remained loyal to their queen, the rebellion was easily crushed; and the rebel leaders were tried, condemned and beheaded.

In 1570 Pope Pius V. issued a bull declaring England's Protestant queen destitute of all title to her crown and absolving her subjects from all allegiance to her. As Mary would be Queen of England if Elizabeth was not, the Pope's declaration was a bold step in Mary's cause.

As the Queen of England was the head and protectress of the Protestant religion in Europe, she was the constant object of Catholic fury, and her situation was always an extremely perilous one. It was necessary for her to act with extreme discretion and caution, and she consequently considered it prudent to continue her intercourse with the French court; but she accorded to the French ambassador, a man of honor and humanity, such a reception as left him in no doubt as to her real sentiments concerning the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, in 1572.

It would have been folly for Queen Elizabeth, in the early part of her reign, to have courted a conflict with any of the great Catholic powers of Europe, especially with Spain, as her title to the English crown was so precarious, and as her kingdom had a population of not more than six millions, without soldiers, ships or allies. Time and peace were her great needs to enable her to establish her personal authority, to plant the Church of England on a solid basis, to develop the resources of her kingdom, and to build up a navy.

The resources of Elizabeth and her Ministers were constantly taxed to their utmost to preserve peace and to gain time. For this reason she alternately raised and dashed the hopes of half a dozen royal suitors who desired to marry her. For the same reason she engaged in incessant negotiations and

continual intrigues with foreign powers, holding Spain in check by threatening an alliance with France, and keeping France at bay through fear of an alliance with Spain, really deceiving neither, but outwitting and perplexing both. Thus, while accomplishing her object, the preservation of peace, Queen Elizabeth acquired that reputation for duplicity and mendacity, in her public and private relations, which has left so indelible a stain on her memory.

Whether intentionally designed or not, the moderate ground which Queen Elizabeth took in religion contributed to her personal honor and to the peace of England. While requiring conformity to the usages of the Protestant State Church of England, she punished none for their religious opinions, and this was a step far in advance of her predecessors and of the age in which she lived. Had she taken ground with either Catholic or Puritan extreme she would sooner or later have been confronted with a Puritan or Catholic revolt. As it was, the great mass of both Catholic and Puritan extremes remained as staunch in their loyalty to their queen as did the adherents of the Established Church, and rallied with fervent devotion to the royal standard when the independence of England was threatened by Philip II. of Spain.

English priests educated at the English Catholic seminaries at Douay and Rheims, in France, were taught that the assassination of heretical sovereigns, especially of Queen Elizabeth, was a meritorious act, and that whoever should lose his life in such an attempt would be sure of eternal happiness. Large numbers of these English seminary priests and Jesuits poured into England, and were constantly engaged in plots against Elizabeth's throne and life. Many of these were tortured for the purpose of obtaining information as to the designs of the Catholic party in England, and were put to death. Among those who thus suffered was the English poet, Robert Southwell, whose fate was a most melancholy one. After long imprisonment, he demanded release or death, whereupon Burleigh said that if he was so anxious to be hanged he could be accommodated, and he was executed in 1595.

Queen Elizabeth retaliated on the annoyances caused her by the seminary priests and the Jesuits by allowing the Huguenots of France to enlist men in England, by loaning money to the Queen of Navarre, and by using her influence with the German princes in behalf of the Huguenots. The atrocious Massacre of St. Bartholomew—that frightful slaughter of Huguenots—excited horror and alarm in England; and the English queen made no secret of her indignation and disgust—feelings that she shared with her subjects.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew, and the brutalities of the Spaniards when they

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

took Antwerp, convinced England's queen and her Ministers that the Roman Catholics of Continental Europe had combined for a bloody extirpation of Protestantism. Elizabeth's great danger was the hostility of the Catholic party in and out of England. The strength and activity of the English Catholics gave grounds for the fear that they might, with the aid of the Kings of France and Spain, turn against Queen Elizabeth and repeat in England the horrors which they had enacted on the Continent.

To strike a deadly blow at the Spanish power, that bold, buccaneering Englishman,

Sir Francis Drake, was permitted by his queen to cruise along the shores of the Spanish American possessions and to waylay the treasure-laden galleons that sailed annually from Peru to Spain. Although this was piracy when England and Spain were nominally at peace, it was amply offset by the Spanish king's secret plots.

The activity of the seminary priests convinced the English queen that many a dagger was sharpened for her assassination. A fanatical Jesuit named Campian was detected in a plot against her life, and was executed in 1581. All Jesuits and seminary priests were banished from England on penalty of death; and no less than two hundred are said to have been executed on the charge of "pretending to the power of absolving subjects from their allegiance." The assassination of Prince William of Orange, the illustrious founder of the Dutch Republic, in 1584, by a hired agent of the King of Spain, was a direct result of the teachings of the seminary priests.

The plots of her enemies thus forced Queen Elizabeth in self-defense to become the ally of the Huguenots in France, and of the revolted burghers of the Netherlands, whose freedom and prosperity the armies of Philip II. of Spain were exterminating with fire and sword. When Antwerp, the principal market and banking center of Europe, was taken and destroyed, in 1585, one-third of its manufacturers and merchants removed to London, which at once rose to the front rank of commercial cities.

The assassination of Prince William of Orange, and the cruelties of the Spaniards when they captured Antwerp, induced the Netherlanders to offer the sovereignty of their country to the English queen. Elizabeth considered it prudent to decline the proffered honor; but, as she was determined to prevent the subjugation of the revolted provinces by the Spanish king's armies, she agreed to furnish the Netherlanders military and financial aid. She accordingly sent an expedition of eight thousand troops under Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, her favorite general, into the Netherlands to aid the Dutch Republic in establishing its independence of Philip II. of Spain. This Earl of Leicester was a son of the wicked Earl of Northumberland during the reign of Edward VI.

The English expedition met with a severe loss in the death of Sir Philip Sidney, who was mortally wounded in the battle of Zutphen, September 22, 1586. This model knight and ideal gentleman was equally distinguished as a courtier, a soldier and an author, and was one of the courtiers of Queen Elizabeth, who called him "the jewel of her dominions." He was also known as the "Flower of Chivalrie" and "the darling of the court and camp." As

SIR PHILIP SIDNEY.

he lay stretched on the ground, his attendants brought him a cup of water to quench his raging thirst. Just as he was raising the cup to his lips he saw a poor wounded soldier near him looking wistfully at it, whereupon he said: "Take this water to him; his necessity is greater than mine." The gallant Sidney—so brave, courteous, eloquent, accomplished and learned—passed away at the early age of thirty-two; and has always been ranked as one of the most perfect characters of history.

In 1585 the English Parliament passed a law for the punishment of persons plotting against the sovereign for the purpose of securing the crown. Mary, Queen of Scots,

was the first victim of this law. Of the many conspiracies among the English Roman Catholics for Elizabeth's dethronement and Mary's elevation to the English throne, the last and most dangerous was that detected in 1586, organized by Anthony Babbington, a wealthy gentleman, and John Savage and John Ballard, priests of the English seminary at Rheims, in France.

The conspirators intended to assassinate Elizabeth and release Mary at the same moment. The Spanish ambassador at Paris had promised to aid the conspirators with his sovereign's troops; and it was believed that these Spanish troops, with the assistance of the English Roman Catholics, would be able to place the Queen of Scots on the throne of England. The plot was detected by the vigilance of Sir Francis Walsingham, Queen Elizabeth's Secretary of State, and the conspirators were seized and executed.

The Queen of Scots herself was implicated in the conspiracy, and a commission of peers was appointed to ascertain her complicity in it. As before, Mary's letters were the chief evidence of her guilt. Queen Elizabeth was obliged to act in defense of her throne and her life, and her Council and Parliament considered Mary's execution a state necessity. She was therefore pronounced guilty and condemned to death, October 25, 1586.

Queen Elizabeth appeared reluctant to consent to the execution of the unfortunate Mary, although she felt no peace as long as she was alive. It was a severe remedy, but inevitable. Finally, after waiting several months, the English queen signed the death-warrant; and her Prime Minister, Cecil, Lord Burleigh, obtained it from her private secretary, Davison, and had it hastily executed.

The warrant was brought to Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, Mary's last prison, February 7, 1587, by the Earls of Shrewsbury, Kent, Derby and Cumberland, who were accompanied by two executioners, and who informed her that she must prepare for death at eight o'clock the next morning. She received their message with composure and seemed perfectly resigned to her sad fate. She employed herself during the rest of the day in writing letters to her friends. She retired to rest at her usual time, but arose after a few hours' sleep, and passed the remainder of the night in prayer.

Early in the morning she attired herself in a rich dress of silk and velvet, the only one which she had reserved for this solemn occasion. Thomas Andrews, the Under Sheriff of Northamptonshire, entered her room at eight o'clock, and informed her that the fatal hour had arrived and that he must attend her to the place of execution. She replied that she was ready, bid her servants farewell, and proceeded, supported by two of her guards, and followed the Sheriff with a serene countenance, with a long veil of white linen on her head, and with an ivory crucifix and a prayer-book in her hand. She then passed into another hall of the castle, where a scaffold was erected and covered with black; the noblemen and the Sheriff going before, and Andrew Melville, her master of the household, bearing up her train.

As soon as Mary was seated Beale commenced reading the death-warrant. Then Fletcher, Dean of Peterborough, who stood outside the railing, repeated a long exhortation, which she desired him to forbear, as she firmly resolved to die a Roman Catholic. The hall was filled with spectators, who beheld the ill-fated queen with pity and distress; while her beauty gleamed through her sufferings, and was still remarkable in this fatal moment, though dimmed by age and affliction.

The two executioners knelt and asked her pardon; and she said that she forgave them, and all those responsible for her death, as freely as she hoped for forgiveness from her God; after which she solemnly protested her innocence. Her eyes were then covered with a linen handkerchief, and she laid her head on the block without any fear or trepidation. Then she recited a Psalm and repeated a pious ejaculation, and her head was severed from her body by two strokes from the executioners' axes.

Thus perished Mary, Queen of Scots, in the forty-fifth year of her age and the nineteenth year of her captivity in England, at Fotheringay Castle, February 8, 1587. She was a woman of great beauty and accomplishments; and the beauty of her person, the graces of her air and the charms of her conversation combined to make her one of the most amiable of women and to produce a deep impression upon all who came in contact with her. She was ambitious and active in her temper, but inclined to cheerfulness and society. She had sufficiently masculine virtues to give her vigor in the prosecution of her purposes, without relinquishing the feminine graces which constitute the proper ornament of her sex.

Her numerous misfortunes, the solitude of her long captivity, and the persecutions to which she had been subjected on account of her religion, had made her somewhat bigoted in her later years; and, considering the prevalent spirit of the age, it is not surprising that her zeal, her resentment and her interest combined, induced her to give her consent to a design which conspirators who were actuated by zeal alone had formed against the English queen's life. Her brilliant qualities of mind and person, the calm dignity with which she bore misfortune, and her affecting death-scene, have excited universal sympathy and thrown a veil of charity over the frailties of her life and character.

She had become Queen of Scotland in her infancy. From the age of six to that of nineteen she had been trained to levity and dissipation in the French court. From her nineteenth to her twenty-seventh year she had lived and reigned in Scotland, in a succession of follies and sorrows, and in the midst of enemies. She had passed the remaining nineteen years of her life in miserable captivity in England.

The judgment of this great event has been much affected by the personal differences between the two queens. Mary's extraordinary beauty and grace of manner fascinated all who saw her and almost all who have read her romantic history. Elizabeth, though a great queen, was a coarse, vain and disagreeable woman; but she was the champion of progress, freedom and enlightenment; while the Queen of Scots, though she may have been unconscious of the fact, was the representative of an iron despotism. If English freedom, instead of the soul-crushing tyranny of Spain, was to become the leading principle in Europe, the execution of Mary Stuart was a political necessity.

In a letter which Mary wrote to Elizabeth near the close of her long captivity, when all worldly ambitions had given way to longings for liberty, she said: "Let me go, let me retire from this island to some solitude, where I may prepare my soul to die. Grant this, and I will sign away every right which either I or mine can claim."

Elizabeth paid no attention to this touching appeal; and the Queen of Scots then bequeathed all her rights to the English crown to Philip II. of Spain—rights which Philip promptly claimed and began the most formidable preparations to enforce; as we shall presently see.

In order to put the responsibility for Mary's execution on her servants, Queen Elizabeth affected great grief and rage at the unseemly haste with which the death-warrant had been carried into effect; imprisoned her private secretary, Davison, for having handed the warrant to her Prime Minister; and wore mourning and for some days shut herself up with only her women. King James VI. of Scotland expressed great resentment at his mother's execution, and threatened Elizabeth with a war; but the English queen succeeded in appeasing a king who was of a most peaceful disposition.

In the meantime England was enjoying unparalleled prosperity, and its maritime growth was truly wonderful. The moderate and pacific policy which Elizabeth had so persistently pursued for thirty years had produced the happiest results. The debts of the crown were honestly paid, and the expenses of the government were defrayed by the regular revenues, without having recourse to taxation. The nation had made

a rapid and healthful advance in wealth and power. Its industries were characterized by unparalleled thrift, and its commerce covered all seas, pouring the wealth of every land and clime into London, which was then just becoming the great emporium of the civilized world. Both the navy and the merchant marine of England were vastly augmented.

The thirst for adventure and discovery had sent intrepid English seamen into every quarter of the globe, and the glowing reports of the wonders which these had discovered stimulated fresh expeditions, thus opening new avenues of trade to English enterprise. This adventurous spirit led Chancellor to penetrate the frozen Arctic seas to the east, thus discovering the Russian port of Archangel, and opening a lucrative trade with the empire of the Czar. This same adventurous spirit also induced John Davis and Martin Frobisher to explore the same Northern ocean to the west, in search of a North-west passage to India. The same spirit sent Sir John Hawkins into tropical waters, thus opening an inexhaustible source of wealth in African ivory, gold-dust and slaves.

Southampton merchants acquired wealth by their traffic in the ivory and gold-dust of Guinea; and Sir John Hawkins conceived the bold idea of transporting laborers from the populous coasts of Guinea to the untilled soil of the New World. The slave-trade, so justly condemned by the enlightened humanity of the nineteenth century, was encouraged by philanthropists of the Elizabethan age as a means of relieving the feeble natives of America, thousands of whom were perishing from their insufferable toils under Spanish overseers.

An extensive English commmerce was growing up with the ports of the North, Baltic and Mediterranean seas. Every English harbor had for a long time sent its fishing boats into the neighboring waters, but during Elizabeth's reign England began to rival France in the number of vessels employed in the cod-fisheries of Newfoundland and the whale-fisheries of the Polar seas.

The atrocious Massacre of St. Bartholomew in France, and the merciless slaughter of the patriot Netherlanders by the Spaniards, which had fired Protestant England with fierce resentment, was another cause for the maritime development of England. But England's politic queen coolly continued negotiations for marriage with a Catholic prince of France, even after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew; and for a long time she looked with seeming indifference at the cruelties of the Duke of Alva, the Spanish governor in the Netherlands. At last the English people took the matter into their own hands and made war on their own account, thousands of them flocking to the Netherlands and joining the armies of the newly founded Dutch Republic.

It was then that the English "sea-dogs," commissioned as privateers by the French Prince of Condé and by the Prince of Orange, or flying the French and Dutch flags without commissions, simply pirates, swarmed in all the seas frequented by French or Spanish merchantmen. With the assistance of the English people all along the coast, and frequently by the English officers themselves, prizes were constantly run into secret inlets, where their cargoes were discharged. Sir Francis Drake, the boldest spirit of them all, haunted the unguarded coasts of Spanish America, burning towns, and intercepting Spanish galleons en route to Cadiz, with their precious cargoes of gold, silver and diamonds for the King of Spain. It was in such schools that the brave and hardy mariners of England were trained for the great struggle with Philip II. of Spain, which soon followed the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.

Sir Francis Drake, the first Englishman who navigated the Pacific Ocean, explored the Pacific coast of America as far north as Cape Orford in Oregon, in 1579, named the country *New Albion*, and took possession of it in the name of his queen; after which he returned to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope, thus completing the second circumnavigation of the globe.

Matters were rapidly coming to a crisis

Doge and Dogaressa.

German Drummer—Colorbearer (16th Century).

Knight in Full Armor and Lady (first third of 15th Century).

Knight in Full Armor and Lady (first third of 16th Century).

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between Elizabeth and Philip II. For a long time the Queen of England had been embittered by the Spanish king's secret efforts to excite revolt among her Roman Catholic subjects. For the same length of time Philip II. had been enraged at Elizabeth's duplicity in secretly aiding the Netherlanders and shielding English pirates preying on Spanish commerce, while professing peace with Spain. The crisis was hastened when Elizabeth, under the pressure of English public sentiment, finally threw off the mask by sending the Earl of Leicester with an English force to the Netherlands.

When Sir Francis Drake returned from one of his expeditions, enriched with the gold and jewels taken from Spanish galleons, and Philip II. demanded that the "pirate" be surrendered to him, Elizabeth publicly conferred the honor of knighthood on her buccaneering seaman, and wore the captured jewels in her hair. The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, finally ended the Spanish king's irresolution, and thus matters were brought to a crisis between him and England's great queen.

The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, aroused the indignation of the Roman Catholics throughout Europe. Pope Sixtus V.—who so firmly maintained the discipline of the Church—outlawed England's Protestant queen; and Philip II. of Spain was secretly preparing to avenge Mary's death, to dethrone Elizabeth, to assert his own claim to the English crown bequeathed to him by Mary, to subjugate England, France and the Netherlands at one blow, and to establish a powerful Roman Catholic empire in the West of Europe under the supremacy of Spain.

With these great objects in view, Philip II. now began to utilize all the vast resources of the great dominion of Spain. For three years he had been slowly collecting ships and great magazines of stores in the Tagus; and he now fitted out a gigantic fleet of one hundred and fifty vessels, which he boastfully called the *Invincible Armada*. The Roman Catholics throughout Europe felt the fullest confidence in the success of this gigantic Spanish naval armament, which had been blessed by Pope Sixtus V., so that it was looked upon as engaged in a holy war, and kindled among the Spaniards an enthusiasm like that of the Crusades.

Queen Elizabeth heard of the Spanish king's secret preparations, and the English sea-rovers were all called home. Sir Francis Drake, with thirty ships, hovered about the coast of Spain, seizing Spanish merchantmen and attacking unguarded points. He boldly entered the harbor of Cadiz and destroyed the ships and stores collected there, thus delaying the sailing of the Invincible Armada for many months. Altogether Drake burned more than a hundred ships.

Undismayed by the coming storm, Queen Elizabeth made extensive preparations for defense, relying on the superior skill and bravery of her seamen to overcome the Spanish superiority in numbers. The great vigor displayed by England's mighty queen was warmly seconded by the ardor and zeal of her subjects, all of whom rallied to the royal standard in defense of their national independence. Every town in England contributed men and ships for the national defense. Nobles and common people, Protestants and Catholics—with the latter of whom love of country was stronger than love of Church—labored together with zeal and energy; all being inspired by the indomitable spirit of their Protestant queen. Catholic gentry and Puritan traders alike offered their ships, all manned and equipped, for the great struggle with the Invincible Armada.

Elizabeth called out an army of forty thousand men and placed it under the command of her favorite general, the Earl of Leicester. Side by side in the muster of this army at Tilbury stood Churchman, Puritan and Catholic, all alike ready to offer up their lives in defense of their queen and of their country's independence. Elizabeth appeared on horseback before her troops and made them a short speech, which greatly raised their courage and zeal. Among other things she said: "I know I

have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a King of England too, and think proud scorn that Parma, or Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of my realms, for which, rather than any dishonor come upon me, I will take up arms myself."

To show her confidence in the loyalty of her Roman Catholic subjects, Elizabeth placed her fleets under the command of Lord Howard of Effingham, a prominent English Roman Catholic nobleman; and under him served Sir Francis Drake, Sir John Hawkins and Martin Frobisher—then the most renowned seamen in Europe.

QUEEN ELIZABETH IN LATER YEARS.
[From the Portrait by Zucchero, at Jesus College, Oxford.]

The Invincible Armada, under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, sailed from Lisbon for the English Channel, May 31, 1588; but, as it was overtaken by a storm, it put into the harbor of Corunna to refit. It made its appearance in the English Channel, July 19, 1588, in the form of a crescent, extending seven miles from wing to wing, and composed of one hundred and fifty ships. Lord Howard at once sailed out of Plymouth harbor with an English fleet only half as large as the Armada. The English knew the coast, and their bravery and skill was superior to that of the Spaniards. The huge and unwieldy Spanish galleons sailed slowly up the Channel, harassed at every point by the lighter and better managed craft of the English, who boldly encountered the Armada and "plucked its feathers one by one."

Still the Armada sailed on its way steadily, and anchored in Calais Roads, July 27, 1588, to wait for the Spanish army of thirty thousand men, under the Duke of Parma, which was to invade England from the Netherlands. As this Spanish army had been at Dunkirk, ready to land on the coast of England as soon as the Armada should arrive to protect its passage across the English Channel, Lord Howard saw the necessity of decisive action, and he resolved upon closer fighting.

Accordingly, the next night, July 28, 1588, Lord Howard floated eight fire-ships into the very midst of the Armada, as the huge galleons lay crowded together at anchor. The affrighted Spaniards cut their cables and fled to the open sea, being drifted by the wind in a wavering line along the coast. At dawn Drake's fearless "sea-dogs" attacked the broken line, and the battle lasted

until sunset, with the advantage on the side of the English, whose speed was double that of their clumsy foes, and who were able to fire four shots to the Spaniards' one. One Spanish galleon after another was captured, sunk, or forced on shore, and the still large but panic-stricken Armada was driven northward.

Utterly humiliated and helpless, the Spanish admiral no longer thought of the conquest of England, but only of safety for his broken and dispersed fleet, and he accordingly resolved to return home. But, as the wind blew from the south, he was obliged to sail northward along the eastern shores of England, around Scotland, and southward along the western coast of Ireland. The English were obliged to give up the pursuit because their ammunition became exhausted, and the fleeing Spanish galleons which had escaped the destructive effects of the English fire-ships and of Drake's "sea-dogs" were soon lost in the North Sea.

A furious tempest among the Orkneys dashed many of the disabled and unwieldy galleons to pieces upon the rocky shores. The helpless crews that escaped watery graves were massacred by the savage natives. Eight thousand of the Spanish chivalry are said to have perished in storms on the western coast of Ireland.' Only a third of the Invincible Armada returned to the shores of Spain, nearly a hundred ships and fourteen thousand men having been lost.

Spain was filled with mourning for the loss of its bravest and noblest sailors and warriors. When King Philip II. was informed of the great catastrophe, he remarked: "I sent it against man and not against the billows." When the Duke of Medina Sidonia appeared before the king, the latter said: "We cannot blame you for what has happened; we cannot struggle against the will of God." The triumphant English recognized the fact that the elements had contributed largely to their victory. An old English medal commemorating the event bore the following inscription:

"Flavit Jehovah et dissipati sunt."
"Jehovah blew and they were scattered."

The destruction of the Spanish Armada caused unbounded rejoicings in England and throughout Protestant Europe, and the moral consequences of the event were very great. It virtually secured the independence of the Dutch Republic; it inspired the Huguenots in France with hope; and it raised the courage of the Protestants throughout Europe. From that time Spain rapidly declined in power and national greatness, and her naval superiority was broken; while England took her place as a great maritime power, and her supremacy on the seas was established.

The war between England and Spain lasted some years longer, and a host of English privateers under the queen's commission preyed upon Spanish commerce. With the energy of despair, Philip II. raised another Armada in 1597; but this only brought Sir Francis Drake and his "sea-dogs" again to the Spanish coast. This second Armada was shattered by fierce storms; and Cadiz was plundered and burned by Drake, who again destroyed its ships and stores. Drake again became the scourge of Spanish America, taking treasure-laden galleons and destroying settlements; but the English queen and people had no more fear of Spanish power.

Queen Elizabeth was very fond of traveling about her kingdom, or making *progresses*, as it was called, and visiting her wealthy subjects at their own homes, upon which occasions great entertainments were given, the most celebrated of these being that provided by the Earl of Leicester at Kenilworth Castle, which lasted several days.

Sir Thomas Gresham, a wealthy merchant of London—who erected a building for an Exchange at his own cost—entertained the queen at his magnificent house called Osterley. After viewing the entire mansion, Elizabeth remarked, as she was retiring for the night, that "it would have been much more handsome if the court-yard had been divided by a wall." Sir Thomas, hearing

the remark, instantly put such a number of masons and laborers to work that when the queen arose in the morning she found that a wall had arisen, as if by magic.

Cecil, Lord Burleigh, was Queen Elizabeth's Prime Minister during the first forty years of her reign, dying in 1598. Sir Francis Walsingham was her Secretary of State. Though she had the wisdom to entrust the affairs of state to statesmen and men of sense, she had for favorites men of little ability and still less virtue, and filled her court with the most frivolous characters, with whom she could unbend the cares of royalty. As she was possessed of a gay

CECIL, LORD BURLEIGH.

and lively disposition, she sometimes treated her courtiers with an extraordinary degree of familiarity, or a strange rudeness, such as slapping them on the back and patting their cheeks; but if any of them presumed upon such freedom she could instantly resume her dignity, and, by a severe look or a cutting word, check all further forwardness; so that she knew very well how to keep up her own dignity.

Elizabeth's first chief favorite was Robert Dudley, whom she created Earl of Leicester. His handsome person and pleasing address won the queen's favor for him; and his assiduous attentions, which so pleased her vanity, retained that favor for him. He was guilty of many infamous crimes; but he was able to deceive the queen, both as to his merits and as to his abilities; and he continued in her favor until his death, in 1588, in the very midst of the rejoicings with which England greeted the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

Another of Elizabeth's favorites was Sir Walter Raleigh, who was born in 1552, and who, after passing through Oxford University with great reputation, volunteered as a soldier to aid the Huguenots of France and the struggling Netherlanders. There he improved his time in acquiring valuable knowledge, so that when he returned home, in 1578, he was considered one of the most accomplished gentlemen in England in all respects. As his active mind would not permit him to be idle, he zealously engaged in an expedition which his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a distinguished commander, was fitting out to make settlements in America.

In his first voyage, in 1579, Gilbert was driven back by storms and Spanish war vessels. In his second voyage, in 1583, he explored the coasts of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia and Maine; but his vessel was wrecked on his return voyage to England, and all on board perished. In 1584 Raleigh sent Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow on a voyage to America. They reached the coast of the present North Carolina, and on their return to England they gave such a glowing description of the country which they had visited that Queen Elizabeth, in consideration of her unmarried state, named the territory *Virginia*. In 1585 and 1587 Raleigh made two unsuccessful attempts to plant settlements in Virginia; the first attempt being made by an expedition under Sir Richard Grenville, which remained a year on Roanoke Island and then returned to England; and the second effort being undertaken by an expedition under John White, who returned to England for more colonists, leaving a colony on Roanoke Island, but upon whose return in 1590 the colony had disappeared.

Though Raleigh was so unfortunate in his colonization schemes, he acquired a knowledge of seamanship which afterward made him one of the most skillful English naval commanders. A man of his great abilities could not fail to gain the queen's

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

favor, but he won her special regard by one little gallant act. As the queen was on one occasion walking abroad, attended by some of her courtiers, she came to a muddy place which she could not cross without wetting her feet. Raleigh instantly took a new and very elegant cloak from his shoulder and spread it on the ground, thus enabling the queen to pass over clean and dry. By this act Raleigh won the queen's good graces, and a wag remarked that the sacrifice of a *cloak* obtained for him many a *good suit.*

The great favor which Raleigh enjoyed at court enabled him to procure his extensive grants of lands in America. The Earl of Leicester was alarmed at the queen's rapidly growing favor for Raleigh, and brought forward his own son-in-law, Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, as a competitor. This young English nobleman possessed a noble and generous nature; and his lofty and impetuous spirit won the queen's heart, though it did not stoop to that sycophancy by which all others won her favor.

Elizabeth permitted the Earl of Essex to speak to her with more freedom than she tolerated in any of her old and faithful servants. On one occasion he became so impulsive in an argument with the queen as wholly to forget the rules of good breeding, and turned his back upon her in a contemptuous manner. She flew into a rage at this and gave him a sound box on the ear, telling him that she would not tolerate his impertinence. Instead of making an apology for his insult, the impetuous young nobleman laid his hand on his sword, declaring that he would not endure such treatment, and retired from court.

The friends of the Earl of Essex sought to persuade him that a blow from a woman ought not to be resented; but he said that the character of *woman* was sunk in that of *sovereign*, and refused to make any advances toward a reconciliation. The queen, however, was too fond of him to endure his absence with patience. The quarrel appeared to increase her affection for him, and she recalled him and bestowed more favor upon him than before.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE.

"The spacious times of great Elizabeth" will always be known as one of the most brilliant literary eras in the history of England. The impulse given to learning in

previous reigns, favored by the long peace under the maiden queen, commenced bearing fruit; and men of genius shone in every field of intellectual labor. Sir Philip Sidney, Sir Walter Raleigh, the great divine Richard Hooker, the great philosopher Lord Bacon, the poet-laureate Edmund Spenser, and the immortal dramatist William Shakespeare—all these are names that shed luster upon the reign of the maiden queen, no less than did the wise statesmanship of Burleigh and Walsingham, and the voyages of Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Cavendish and others.

Queen Elizabeth herself made some pretensions to literature, and was the author of some poems. She was vain of her learning,

EDMUND SPENSER.

as well as of her personal beauty. To an address in Greek from the University of Cambridge, she replied in the same language. On one occasion, when the Polish ambassador said something to displease her, she made a spirited reply in very good Latin; after which she turned to her attendants, and said: "I have been forced, my lords, to scour up my Latin, which has been long rusting."

Men's minds were stimulated to fresh thought by the opening of "new heavens and a new earth." While such great astronomers as Kepler in Germany, Galileo in Italy and Tycho Brahe in Denmark were familiarizing the grand discoveries of Copernicus concerning the solar and stellar systems, daring explorers were acquainting Europe with hitherto unknown regions of our own planet. Thus the frosty splendors of the Frigid zone, the barbaric wealth of Mexico and Peru, the jeweled magnificence of imperial courts in India and China, the tropical verdure of islands in previously unexplored oceans—all these were made known to Europe by the marvelous descriptions of these bold navigators. The bonds which had fettered human thought and enterprise were broken.

The wise and cautious Cecil, Lord Burleigh, who had retained Elizabeth's confidence since her accession in 1558, had always sought to check the queen's fondness for the Earl of Essex, who would have kept England constantly in a state of war, for the gratification of his thirst for military glory; but after Burleigh's death, in 1598, the Earl of Essex remained without a rival in the queen's regard.

Ireland, though nominally a possession of the crown of England since the reign of Henry II., was only partially conquered; and the *English Pale* embraced only Dublin, Drogheda, Wexford, Waterford and Cork, with a small extent of territory around each. Though Henry VIII. had made his strong hand felt throughout the Emerald Isle, humbling both the Norman and the Celtic chiefs who had assumed almost royal authority, and demolishing their castles, his effort to "make Ireland English," by forbidding the Irish national dress, language, laws and social customs, utterly failed; and his proceedings in Church affairs contributed vastly to unite all Erin in defense of the monasteries and the shrines of the saints.

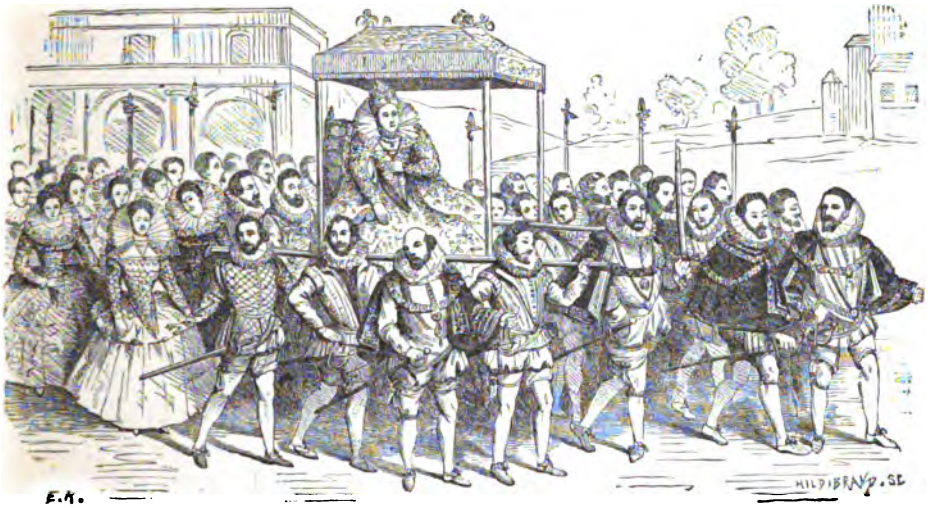
The disorders which had existed throughout Ireland reached a crisis in *Tyrone's Rebellion*, in 1598. Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, an Irish chief, had been educated at the court of Queen Elizabeth, who placed him at the head of the great Irish clan of O'Neill, in a struggle with a rival Irish chieftain; but when he became master of the North of Ireland he defied the power

that had raised him, and maintained his resistance for several years. A victory which he won over an English army at Blackwater, in 1598, gave him an adequate supply of arms and ammunition.

In 1599 Queen Elizabeth appointed her last favorite, the Earl of Essex, to the dignity of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, for the express purpose of suppressing the rebellion of the Earl of Tyrone. With the utmost confidence in his abilities, the Earl of Essex hastened to Ireland, but soon found his task more difficult than he had expected; and, after some months of harassing warfare, he concluded a treaty with the rebellious Irish chieftain, in utter defiance of the queen's commands. Elizabeth sent her favorite a sharp reproof for this and other disobedience, and also ordered him to remain in Ireland until he received further instructions; but he instantly returned to England, and, to the queen's utter surprise, presented himself at court.

Splashed with dirt, the Earl of Essex rushed into the queen's presence-chamber, although he was well aware of how punctilious Elizabeth was about the neat and seemly apparel of those who approached her. As she was not there, he hastened to her bed-chamber, where she had scarcely risen, sitting with her hair about her face. He fell on his knees before her, and she was so taken by surprise at his sudden appearance that she received him most graciously; but when he had left, and she had time to reflect on his conduct, she regarded his last presumption as an aggravation of his previous faults; and when he appeared a few hours later he met with a very different reception, and was given into the custody of Lord Egerton.

Mental agitation now threw the Earl of Essex into a serious illness. The queen's affection returned when she was informed of her favorite's danger. She ordered eight physicians to consult on his case, and sent one of them with some broth, saying that if she could visit him consistently with her honor she would do so, the tears all the while running down her cheeks. Thereupon the Earl of Essex recovered, and was permitted to remain in retirement in his own house.



QUEEN ELIZABETH GOING TO PARLIAMENT HOUSE.

After a long struggle between her affection for her favorite and her sense of justice, Elizabeth at length consented that the Earl of Essex should be called to account for his mismanagement of affairs in Ireland. He did not attempt to excuse himself, but made an humble submission to the queen, who received his contrite messages with great complacency. He then applied to the queen to renew the grant which she had formerly made to him; but she refused, with

the remark that "an ungovernable beast must be stinted in his provender." This contemptuous expression was more than the proud heart of the Earl of Essex could endure, and he flew into an uncontrollable rage, during which he declared that "the queen, now that she was an old woman, was as crooked in her mind as in her person." This was reported to Elizabeth. It was bad enough to call her, who was so vain of her person, crooked; but to call her old was still worse.

The breach between the queen and her favorite now appeared irreparable. Utterly maddened by passion, the Earl of Essex entered into a treasonable correspondence with King James VI. of Scotland to dethrone Elizabeth, and endeavored to excite a riot in London; but he was arrested and committed to the Tower. His trial soon followed, and his guilt was so evident that the queen did not have the least pretext to grant him a pardon. Her affection for her favorite, and her resentment for his recent conduct, reduced Elizabeth to a pitiable condition of mind; and a long and painful vacillation on her part followed. She signed the death-warrant; then countermanded it; again determined on his death; then felt a new return of tenderness.

Knowing his impetuous temper, the queen had in a moment of tenderness years before given the Earl of Essex a ring, assuring him that if he ever got into trouble his return of that ring would give him a favorable hearing. Now that he lay under sentence of death she looked confidently for the return of the ring; but, after waiting in vain day after day, and attributing his failure to send it to his obstinacy, the offended pride of the disappointed and resentful queen, both as sovereign and friend, led her to sign the death-warrant; and the unfortunate Earl of Essex was beheaded on Tower Hill, February 25, 1601, in the thirty-fourth year of his age.

Two years afterward the Countess of Nottingham, one of Elizabeth's courtiers, when on her death-bed called the queen to her bedside and confessed that the Earl of Essex had just before his execution handed her the ring to return it to Her Majesty, but that she had withheld it at her husband's command. In a paroxysm of rage and grief, Queen Elizabeth shook the dying countess in her bed, crying: "God may forgive you, but I never can!"

In her agony of grief and despair, Elizabeth shut herself up in her palace, and, throwing herself on the floor, she became a prey to a deep melancholy from which she never recovered. Though the Irish rebellion was subdued by Lord Mountjoy, and many English victories were won over the Spaniards, the poor queen took no heed. For ten days and nights she lay on the floor, supported by cushions. She refused to go to bed, or to take anything prescribed by her physicians.

As the queen's end was visibly approaching, her attendants requested her to appoint her successor. When the name of Lord Beauchamp, a member of the royal family, was mentioned, she said, with a display of the old Tudor spirit: "I will have no rogue's son in my seat." King James VI. of Scotland was named, but the dying queen was speechless and could only signify her assent. Being too weak to make any resistance, she was laid in her bed; and the next morning, March 24, 1603, she died in the seventieth year of her age and the forty-fifth of her reign.

Thus, like her sister and predecessor, Elizabeth died broken-hearted. Such was the melancholy end of the most brilliant reign in English history; and thus ended the Tudor dynasty, which, comprising five reigns, had worn the English crown for one hundred and eighteen years (A. D. 1485–1603).

Elizabeth was a good queen, but not a good woman. In character she had the most contradictory qualities; uniting, in a marked degree, her father's iron will, imperious temper and sound judgment with her mother's insincerity, vacillation and vanity. She was frequently coarse in her manners, and occasionally profane in her speech.

Though Elizabeth was arbitrary in her

rule, like her father, she was never a tyrant like him, and when the occasion required concession she knew how to yield. Two years before her death she granted many monopolies to favored individuals; but when she perceived that they had caused dissatisfaction she sent a message to the House of Commons, reversing all the grants. To a committee sent to express the gratitude of the Commons for Her Majesty's gracious act, she returned her thanks for reminding her of an error into which she had fallen because of mistaken judgment. Said she to her Parliament: "I have desired to have the obedience of my subjects by love, and not by compulsion."

Because of her earnest desire to win the affections and promote the welfare of her subjects, notwithstanding her faults, the English people have ever since looked back with pride and pleasure to "the golden days of Good Queen Bess."

SECTION XIII.—THE REFORMATION IN SCOTLAND.

JAMES V., an infant of two years, became King of Scotland upon the death of his father, James IV., in the disastrous battle of Flodden Field, in September, 1513. In the midst of the grief caused by that catastrophe, all Scotland was filled with alarm. Edinburgh was fortified with a wall, and preparations were made to resist the advance of the victorious English. These precautions were, however, unnecessary, as King Henry VIII. of England generously declined to press his advantage against his sister Margaret, the widow of King James IV.; and, as his own kingdom was safe, he disbanded his army.

The Scottish Parliament met at Perth and appointed the widowed Queen Margaret regent; but within a year she married the Earl of Angus, the head of the great Douglas family of Scotland; whereupon the Parliament made John, Duke of Albany, the High Admiral of France and the nephew of King James III. of Scotland, regent in her stead. Peace was also made with England. The great number of Frenchmen which the Duke of Albany brought with him to Scotland made him very unpopular at first; and Margaret at first refused to give up the young king to him, but she was besieged in Stirling Castle and forced to yield.

The Hamiltons, headed by the Earl of Arran, and the Douglases, under the leadership of the Earl of Angus, distracted Scotland by the constant warfare which they kept up against each other. The regent, the Duke of Albany, aided by the French, put an end to the strife between the two hostile Scottish families. He seized the Earl of Angus and sent him to France, whence he soon made his escape to England and joined his wife, who had fled to that country. Lord Home and his brother, two of the most powerful of the Douglas faction, were seized, and beheaded after a mock trial.

The Duke of Albany went back to France about a year after his appointment as regent of Scotland, leaving Anthony de la Bastie, a Frenchman, as his representative in Scotland, and placing French garrisons in the Scottish fortresses, thus increasing the Scottish hatred of the French to the greatest degree. Anthony de la Bastie was killed by the Homes in revenge for the death of Lord Home. The feud between the Hamiltons and the Douglases was now renewed with more than its former violence, and the rival factions fought their battles in the very streets of Edinburgh. The Douglases were generally the successful party, and the Earl of Angus drove the Hamiltons from Edinburgh and held the city with an armed force. After remaining in France for five years, the Duke of Albany was induced to return to Scotland by the threats and entreaties of the Scottish Parliament, A. D. 1520.

In 1522 King Henry VIII. of England commenced interfering in the affairs of Scotland by demanding that the Duke of Albany should be dismissed from the regency and that Scotland should renounce her alliance with France. The Scottish Parliament rejected the English king's demand and made preparations for war, and a desultory warfare followed between the English and the Scots along the border. The Duke of Albany greatly disgusted the Scottish nation by his mismanagement, and in 1524 he abandoned the regency and sailed for France.

After the Duke of Albany had left Scotland, Henry VIII. of England sought to force the Scots to renounce their alliance with France, and in this he was warmly supported by his widowed sister Margaret, the mother of the boy king of Scotland. The head of the French party in Scotland was Cardinal Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrews, who exerted himself to check the designs of the King of England. But the English influence was more powerful for the time; and, in accordance with the advice of Henry VIII., King James V., then twelve years of age, assumed the government of Scotland in his own name, by the act called *The Erection of the King*, August, 1524.

The defeat and capture of King Francis I. of France by the Germans and Spaniards in the battle of Pavia, in 1525, aroused great sympathy for him in Scotland, and again turned the current of popular feeling in that country in favor of France.

In 1526 King James V., then fourteen years of age, chose the Earls of Angus, Argyle and Errol as his guardians. The Earl of Angus was the first to enter upon his duties; but when his term expired he refused to resign the custody of the boy king's person, holding him in his power for two years, and tyrannizing over him in such a manner as to acquire the youthful monarch's cordial hatred.

In 1528 James V. escaped by night from Falkland, and rode to Stirling Castle, disguised as a groom. He immediately set to work to crush the Douglases, and was so successful that the Earl of Angus was obliged to seek refuge in England. That powerful Scottish nobleman's possessions were confiscated, and his branch of the great Douglas family was thoroughly ruined.

King James V. next directed his attention to the borderers, who had become as lawless as the Highlanders. He chastised them severely, and hanged their most prominent leader, John Armstrong, as a common thief.

It was the steady policy of James V. to break the power of the Scottish nobles and to increase the authority of the Scottish crown. He made important reforms in the administration of justice, and in every way he protected and befriended his humblest subjects against the violence and extortion of the nobles. In this way he obtained their enthusiastic devotion, and acquired the title of "King of the Commons."

James V. was a faithful Roman Catholic; but the Reformation made great progress in Scotland during his reign, in spite of the cruel persecution inaugurated by Cardinal Beaton, the Primate of Scotland.

In 1542 Scotland became involved in a war with England, and a Scottish army of ten thousand men was sent to invade that kingdom; but this army was surprised and shamefully routed by five hundred English at Solway Moss, December 6, 1542, as already noticed in the history of England. King James V. received the news at Caerlaverock Castle, and at the same time he was informed that a daughter was born to him. This daughter was the celebrated and unfortunate Mary, Queen of Scots. The failure of a male heir and the shameful defeat of his army were more than the poor king could endure; and he died of grief and disappointment eight days later, December 14, 1542, leaving the crown of Scotland to his infant daughter, MARY.

James Hamilton, Earl of Arran, was chosen regent for the infant Queen Mary, who was left in the care of her mother, Mary of Guise, the second wife of James V. Mary of Guise belonged to the powerful French family of Lorraine having that name.

All Scotland was disheartened by the catastrophe at Solway Moss, and Henry VIII. of England took advantage of this despondency to force the Scots to consent to a treaty providing for the marriage of the infant Queen Mary with his own son Edward, Prince of Wales, afterward King Edward VI. of England. In this way Henry VIII. hoped to unite the crowns of Scotland and England.

When the Scots had recovered from their depression their Parliament repudiated the treaty forced upon them by the English monarch, whereupon Henry VIII. declared war against Scotland May 1, 1544. An English army under the Earl of Hertford then made a savage raid into Scotland, and sacked and burned Leith and Edinburgh, but was defeated and driven out of Scotland. The next year the Earl of Hertford renewed his invasion and ravaged the southern part of Scotland with dreadful cruelty, burning between two and three hundred villages and a number of towns, churches and manors; but the English effected no permanent conquest of the country, and the Earl of Hertford returned to England.

In 1547 the Earl of Hertford, then Duke of Somerset, and Protector of England during the minority of King Edward VI., invaded Scotland a third time, and defeated the Scots at Pinkie with the loss of ten thousand men, September 10, 1547. The Duke of Somerset then returned to England with the greater part of his army; but, as the English held possession of the southern fortresses of Scotland, the regent of Scotland sent little Queen Mary to France to be there educated and betrothed to the Dauphin, thus rendering her marriage with Edward VI. of England forever impossible. By extraordinary exertions and with the aid of six thousand French troops, the regent of Scotland drove the English back into their own country; and peace was made between Scotland and England in 1550.

In the meantime the Reformation was making rapid progress in Scotland. The Scots were highly exasperated by the persecutions with which the Roman Catholic clergy, under the leadership of Cardinal Beaton, the Primate of Scotland, sought to check the advance of Protestantism; and the only effect of the persecutions was to make numerous converts to the Reformed doctrines. A large party in Scotland applauded the course of King Henry VIII. of England in suppressing the monasteries and nunneries in his kingdom, and advocated the adoption of similar proceedings in their own country.

In 1545 George Wishart was burned to death for preaching the doctrines of the Reformation. Sixteen of his disciples were admitted into the Castle of St. Andrews, Cardinal Beaton's stronghold, and murdered the Primate in revenge for the martyrdom of their teacher. They held possession of the castle for fourteen months against all the efforts of the regent to retake it, but were finally forced to submit, and were sent to the French galleys. Among the number was John Knox, who afterward became so famous as the great Apostle of Calvinism in Scotland. The regent appointed his own brother, John Hamilton, to the office of Archbishop of St. Andrews to succeed the murdered Cardinal Beaton.

The Earl of Arran was created Duke of Chatelherault by King Henry II. of France in 1554, whereupon he resigned the regency of Scotland and went to France Mary of Guise, the mother of the girl queen Mary, then became regent; and in 1558 she secured the marriage of her daughter with the Dauphin Francis, the heir to the French crown. The next year, upon the death of his father, King Henry II., the Dauphin became King of France with the title of Francis II.; so that the crowns of France and Scotland were now united by marriage. The result was that the French influence became predominant in Scotland, the queen-regent appointing Frenchmen to many of the offices in the kingdom, and putting them in charge of the Scottish fortresses. By their airs of superiority these French officials soon became cordially detested by the Scots, who were impatient to have them out of the country.

The Reformation had advanced rapidly in Scotland since the death of James V. The cruel persecutions of the Protestants in England by Bloody Queen Mary caused many of them to seek refuge in Scotland. These English religious exiles were kindly welcomed by the Scots, who displayed an ardent sympathy for them in their sufferings, and who abhorred the Church that had been the cause of so much misery. The growing zeal of the Scots for the Reformation overcame their recent national antipathy toward the English, and Bloody Queen Mary's cruelties struck a death-blow to Romanism in Scotland as well as in her own kingdom.

The Reformation took a different form in Scotland from what it had taken in England; and, instead of taking the Episcopal Church of England as their model, the Scottish Protestants followed the standard of the Huguenots of France by adopting Calvinism as their religion. The Popish clergy in Scotland, like their brethren in other countries, had lost their influence over the common people by their immoral lives and their irreligion, and had disgusted the Scottish nation by their rapacity and their gross abuse of their spiritual authority. Many of the Scottish nobles sympathized with the Reformers, and many others sided with them because they hoped to obtain some of the fertile and well-cultivated lands of the Romish Church in Scotland in the event of its overthrow.

Calvinism was growing silently but rapidly in Scotland, and the Reformers soon became a formidable party. By a bond, called the *First Covenant*, signed in 1557, the leaders of the Scottish Reformation bound themselves together under the title of the *Congregation;* by which they agreed to stand by each other in procuring the overthrow of the Popish religion in Scotland, and to exert themselves to their utmost to spread the Calvinistic faith and worship in their country, also renouncing the Pope's authority in Scotland, and enjoining their followers to use the English Bible and the English Book of Common Prayer. The nobles who signed the First Covenant were called the *Lords of the Congregation.*

In 1558 Walter Mill, an aged priest of pure life, was burned to death as a heretic at St. Andrews. This cruel act aroused a storm of indignation in Scotland, and the Lords of the Congregation demanded of the regent a reformation of religion according to the principles enunciated in the First Covenant. The queen-regent, Mary of Guise, who was a sister of Francis, Duke of Guise, the deadly enemy of the Huguenots of France, answered the demand of the Lords of the Congregation by summoning some of the Calvinistic preachers to appear before the Privy Council. They prepared to obey her summons, and a strong body of their followers assembled at Perth to accompany and protect them.

Alarmed by this exhibition of strength the queen-regent entreated the Protestants to disperse, and promised to withdraw her summons. But, instead of fulfilling her promise, she outlawed the Calvinistic preachers for not appearing before the council. Enraged at this breach of faith, the Scottish Reformers attacked and sacked the churches and monasteries in Perth, May 11, 1559; and similar outbreaks occurred in other towns of Scotland.

The Lords of the Congregation assembled their followers at Perth and made ready for an appeal to arms. The queen-regent took the field against them at the head of a body of French troops, but a struggle was avoided by negotiation. It was agreed that all the questions at issue between the queen-regent and the Reformers should be adjusted by the Scottish Parliament, that both parties should disarm in the meantime, and that the French garrison should be withdrawn from Perth.

With the duplicity characteristic of the Guises, the queen-regent withdrew the French troops from Perth, but instantly occupied the town with a garrison of Scottish troops hired with French money. The Lords of the Congregation at once flew to arms and occupied Edinburgh and St. Andrews, declared Mary of Guise deposed

from the regency, but proclaimed themselves loyal to Francis II. and Mary, the King and Queen of France and Scotland. Not being strong enough to maintain their position without help, the Lords of the Congregation appealed to Queen Elizabeth of England for aid.

troops who were sent to aid Mary of Guise in maintaining her authority as queen-regent. An English contingent was promptly sent to the assistance of the Scottish Reformers, and several encounters occurred between the Anglo-Scottish troops and the queen regent's French auxiliaries. The

MARY STUART AND FRANCIS II.

In answer to the appeal of the Lords of the Congregation, Queen Elizabeth concluded the Treaty of Berwick with them in 1560, by which she agreed to assist them with English troops against the French

French were besieged in Leith and were obliged to capitulate; and by the Treaty of Edinburgh, during the same year (1560), it was stipulated that the French troops should retire from Scotland, and that in the

future no foreigners should hold office in that kingdom without the consent of the Scottish Parliament. The Parliament agreed, on behalf of the King and Queen of France and Scotland, to acknowledge Elizabeth as the lawful Queen of England, and to relinquish all pretensions to the English crown, A. D. 1560.

The queen-regent of Scotland died soon after the conclusion of the Treaty of Edinburgh. The Lords of the Congregation then convened the Scottish Parliament, which formally abjured the Pope's authority in Scotland, forbade the saying of mass or being present at it, and declared the Geneva Confession of Faith the standard of the Church of Scotland, thus establishing the Calvinistic faith and worship as the state-religion. As there was still a strong Catholic party in Scotland, the Popish religion could not be entirely suppressed by act of Parliament; but Romanism gradually died out in that kingdom during a long course of future years.

After the death of her husband, King Francis II. of France, in 1560, Queen Mary Stuart returned to her own native and hereditary kingdom of Scotland, landing at Leith, August 19, 1561. She was joyfully received by all classes of her subjects, as the death of her royal French husband had freed them of their fear that Scotland would be virtually reduced to the condition of a province of France.

Upon her return to Scotland, Queen Mary was in her nineteenth year, and in the bloom of her youth and beauty. She was highly accomplished, and her manners were graceful and captivating. As she had been educated in France, she was a Scotswoman only in name and blood. She was French in everything else, and was a stranger to her own kingdom and subjects. She was in no way fitted to rule so turbulent a nation as the Scots at so critical a period; and, as she was a zealous Roman Catholic, she was the natural antagonist of the great Protestant movement which had just triumphed in Scotland.

Queen Mary's first measures were calculated to reassure her subjects. She bestowed her confidence wholly on the leaders of the Scottish Reformation, seeing that they alone were capable of supporting her government, and she issued a proclamation enjoining all her subjects to conform to the Protestant religion. But for herself she adhered to the Catholic faith, and with difficulty she obtained permission to have mass celebrated in her private chapel. This greatly offended the Calvinistic preachers, who could not "be reconciled to a person polluted with so great an abomination." John Knox and the other Protestant leaders of Scotland undertook to remonstrate with the queen; and, as they found her firm

JOHN KNOX.

in her religious views, they broke out into coarse and brutal insults even in her presence.

Says Hume: "The ringleader in these insults on the queen was John Knox, who possessed an uncontrolled authority in the Church, and even in the civil affairs of the nation, and who triumphed in the contumelious usage of his sovereign. His usual appellation of the queen was Jezebel; and though she endeavored, by the most gracious condescension, to win his favor, all her insinuations could make no impression on his obdurate heart. Mary, whose age, condition and education invited her to lib-

erty and cheerfulness, was curbed in all amusements by the absurd severity of those Reformers; and she found every moment reason to regret her leaving that country from whose manners she had in her early youth received her first impressions."

The Protestant preachers were as arbitrary as the deposed Romish clergy in their notions of ecclesiastical authority. They claimed that the confiscated Church lands belonged rightfully to them, and asserted their right to dictate to the Scottish nation in public as well as in private affairs. They framed a *First Book of Discipline* for the guidance of the Church, and required its adoption. The Scottish nobles firmly refused to admit the claims of the Reformed preachers, or to accept the First Book of Discipline as law. The confiscated Church lands had been generally distributed, and the Privy Council refused to interfere with the settlement. One-third of what was left was taken to pay the salaries of the clergy, and the remainder went to the crown under certain conditions.

The Papists were still a strong party in the North of Scotland; and their leader, the Earl of Huntley, refused to obey the laws growing out of the new state-religion. He was attacked, defeated and killed by the royal forces in 1562. His son was beheaded at Aberdeen, and the power of the Gordons and of the Scottish Roman Catholics was broken.

All parties in Scotland were anxious for the marriage of Queen Mary. Various matches were suggested to her; but she settled the matter by marrying her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, the son of the Earl of Lennox and Margaret Douglas, July 29, 1565. Darnley was created Earl of Ross and Duke of Albany. As he was a rigid Roman Catholic, this marriage was very distasteful to John Knox and the other Scottish Reformers. The Earl of Murray, Queen Mary's illegitimate half-brother, took up arms to oppose the marriage, and was joined in his revolt by some of the other Scottish nobles; but the malcontents were defeated and forced to seek refuge in England.

Queen Mary found Lord Darnley a weak and contemptible husband, and she soon became tired of him. She had her father's and grandfather's weakness for making favorites and their lack of discretion in the choice of such favorites. David Rizzio, the accomplished Italian musician whom she had made her private secretary, rendered himself obnoxious to the Scottish nobles by encouraging the queen in the severities with which she treated the banished Scottish lords. As these lords determined to get rid of the queen's Italian favorite, they won Darnley over to their side by exciting his jealousy of Rizzio, and the plot was quickly matured. The murder of the queen's Italian favorite by Darnley and his fellow-conspirators took place while he was at supper with her in Holyrood Palace, at Edinburgh, March 9, 1566.

Queen Mary inwardly resolved on revenge, though she dissembled her feelings, appearing reconciled to her husband, and promising to pardon the banished Scottish lords. The next day they appeared before her, and she received the Earl of Murray with affection; but, as she was resolved to have more freedom, she fled with Darnley to Dunbar the next night. The Earl of Bothwell quickly assembled a force for her protection, and she was enabled to return to Edinburgh before the end of the month. She at once cited the assassins of Rizzio to appear and answer for their crime, and when they failed to do so they were outlawed. She gave birth to a son in Edinburgh Castle, June 19, 1566.

Queen Mary's new favorite, the Earl of Bothwell, who had rendered her such good service by his prompt aid to her at Dunbar, was created Lord High Admiral of Scotland and Warden of the Borders, and received the estates of Melrose and Haddington. The queen hated her husband for his share in the assassination of Rizzio, while the Scottish nobles also hated him because he had deserted them after that murder. When he was attacked with small-pox he was removed to the house called the Kirk-o'Field, in the suburbs of Edinburgh. The

blowing up of this house by gunpowder, by which Darnley perished, on the the night of February 10, 1567, was believed to have been perpetrated by the Earl of Bothwell, while Queen Mary was believed to have been accessory to the crime.

The queen gave color to this suspicion by her failure to make any effort to discover the murderers, and by permitting the Earl of Bothwell to browbeat Darnley's father and to intimidate him in his efforts to bring the suspected persons to justice; and, worse than all, she confirmed the suspicions against her by her marriage with the Earl of Bothwell, three month's after Darnley's murder, May 15, 1567, the earl having obtained a divorce from his other wife in order to marry the queen.

The Scottish nobles, deeply resenting the queen's criminal conduct, rose in arms against her, and forced her to surrender to them, June 15, 1567. The Earl of Bothwell escaped from the country, and as he became a pirate he was thrown into prison in Denmark, where he became insane, and died ten years later, A. D. 1577. Queen Mary was carried a prisoner to Edinburgh, where she was received by the people with the most insulting demonstrations. Soon afterward she was sent to Lochlevin Castle; and a few days later a number of letters which she was said to have written to the Earl of Bothwell were produced, implicating her in the murder of her second husband. Thereupon the rebellious Scottish nobles compelled Mary to sign an abdication of her crown in favor of her infant son, JAMES VI., A. D. 1567.

James VI. was crowned and anointed King of Scotland at Stirling. His sponsor, the Earl of Morton, took an oath in his behalf to maintain the Calvinistic State Church of Scotland, and to root out its enemies. The deposed queen's half-brother, the Earl of Murray, was recalled from France, where he had been ever since the murder of Darnley, and was made regent for his infant nephew, at the dethroned queen's request.

A large party of the Scottish nobility, under the leadership of the Hamiltons, refused to acknowledge the authority of the new government, and opened negotiations with the captive ex-queen. Several months afterward Mary escaped from Lochlevin Castle and fled to Hamilton, where she was welcomed with enthusiasm by the dissatisfied Scottish nobles, who recognized her as their legitimate sovereign, A. D. 1568. She at once sent a demand to her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, that he should resign the regency and submit to her as his queen. The regent replied to her demand by raising an army to uphold the authority of the infant King James VI.

After her decisive defeat by her half-brother at Langside, May 13, 1568, Mary rode with all haste to the border and sought refuge in England, where she threw herself upon the generosity of Queen Elizabeth, by whom she was detained a prisoner. The account of Mary's nineteen years' captivity in England, the Catholic plots for her release and her elevation to the English throne, and her final execution, have all been related in the history of England, and need not be repeated here.

Mary Stuart's captivity in England did not destroy her party in Scotland. Her principal supporters were the Hamiltons and the Earl of Huntley. The Duke of Chatelherault, one of the Hamiltons, was the next heir to the Scottish crown after Mary in case King James VI. should die before her. The fallen queen's party hated the Earl of Murray, and the Hamiltons determined upon his death. As he was riding from Stirling to Edinburgh, he was shot and killed at Bothwelhaugh, by James Hamilton, of that town, February 23, 1570. His death was a misfortune for Scotland, as he had ruled the kingdom firmly and well. The Scottish people gratefully remembered him as the "Good Regent."

The murder of the Earl of Murray was followed by a period of anarchy. A border war with England also broke out, and the southern counties of Scotland were ravaged as far as the Clyde. At length the Earl of Lennox, the boy king's paternal grandfather, was chosen regent · but his selection

was opposed by a considerable part of the Scottish people, as he was considered too much of an Englishman to be mindful of the real welfare of Scotland. Grange, who had been assigned to the charge of Edinburgh Castle, declared for the ex-queen, whose partisans likewise held possession of Dumbarton Castle, the strongest fortress in Scotland. Crawford of Jordanhill, an officer of the regent, with a handful of men, surprised and took Dumbarton Castle, April 2, 1571. In September, 1571, the regent summoned the Scottish Parliament to meet at Stirling, where the youthful King James VI. was residing. Four hundred of Mary's troops from Edinburgh Castle made a dash into Stirling and took the regent prisoner, September 4, 1571. He was instantly rescued, but was mortally wounded in the struggle, and died several hours afterward.

The Earl of Mar, Governor of Stirling, succeeded as regent of Scotland. He failed in an effort to take Edinburgh Castle, after which a two months' truce was agreed upon, August 1, 1572. Much blood had been shed in Scotland during this civil war, without any decisive result for either party. During the truce the ex-queen's party received a severe blow in the general horror produced in Scotland by the intelligence of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, in France.

The Earl of Mar died in November, 1572; and the Earl of Morton became regent, November 24, 1572—the very day on which John Knox, the great leader of the Reformation in Scotland, died. Knox was a great man, notwithstanding his faults; his most conspicuous characteristic being his fearlessness in speaking what he believed to be the truth. The civil war in Scotland was renewed at the opening of the year 1573. In August of that year Edinburgh Castle surrendered to the regent, who tarnished his triumph by hanging Grange, its gallant defender. The power of the Earl of Morton was vastly strengthened by this success, but he aroused the animosity of some of the most powerful nobles of Scotland by compelling them to restore the crown property which they had seized. The youthful king, under the influence of his favorite, Esmé Stuart, Lord of Aubigny, the nephew of the late regent, the Earl of Lennox, also turned against the Earl of Morton. At length James Stuart of Ochiltree, another favorite of the king, accused the Earl of Morton before the council of having been an accomplice in the murder of Lord Darnley; and upon this charge the regent was tried, condemned and beheaded at Edinburgh.

Young King James VI. then took the government of Scotland into his own hands; but he was wholly under the influence of his favorites—James Stuart of Ochiltree, whom he created Earl of Arran, and Esmé Stuart, Lord of Aubigny, whom he made Duke of Lennox and Governor of Dumbarton Castle. The royal favor enjoyed by these two Stuarts excited the jealousy of the older Scottish nobles, who, under the leadership of the Earl of Gowrie, seized the boy king and held him a prisoner in Ruthven Castle. They forced him to banish the Duke of Lennox from the kingdom, and administered the government in his name. They also compelled him to declare that in these proceedings he acted of his own free will and without restraint or compulsion.

Young King James VI. remained in the power of the Ruthven lords almost a year, until he escaped to St. Andrews, where his partisans rallied to his support in such numbers that the Ruthven lords were obliged to yield. The youthful king at first acted with moderation; but at length the Earl of Arran, who had returned to power, caused the Earl of Gowrie to be arrested, tried and executed on a charge of plotting against the young king.

Some time afterward the Earl of Arran himself was accused of inciting an affray on the border in which Lord Russell, an Englishman, was killed, and was ordered to retire from court. The Scottish nobles who were jealous of the Earl of Arran then appeared at Stirling, where the youthful king was residing, with a body of eight thousand troops, and forced James VI. to summon a

Parliament, which restored to the Earl of Gowrie's children the lands and honors forfeited by his treason, deprived the Earl of Arran of all his possessions and dignities, and entered into an alliance with England, A. D. 1585.

As we have related in the history of England, Mary Stuart, the captive ex-Queen of Scotland, was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle, in England, February 8, 1587, by order of Queen Elizabeth. King James VI. made a slight display of grief and resentment at his mother's execution, but allowed it to pass without further notice. In 1589 he married Anne, daughter of King Frederick II. of Denmark, and the new queen received the Orkney and Shetland Isles as her dowry.

Scotland was greatly alarmed by the sailing of the Spanish Armada for the invasion of England in 1588, and took measures to prevent the reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism within its borders in case of the Spanish conquest of England. The Scottish nobles and gentry signed the *Second Covenant.*

Scotland did not for several years recover from the excitement caused by the Spanish Armada; and in 1592 the Scottish Parliament passed an act abolishing Episcopacy in Scotland, and substituting the Presbyterian form of Church government instead. The Scottish Church was thenceforth to be under the control of presbyters and synods, under the authority of a general assembly consisting of clergymen and lay elders from the several presbyteries. This general assembly was to meet once a year at Edinburgh under the presidency of the king or his commissioner.

In the same year a plot of the Catholic nobles of Scotland was detected. The conspirators intended to invite King Philip II. of Spain to reëstablish the Roman Catholic religion in Scotland, and promised to aid him with all their resources. The Marquis of Argyle was ordered in the name of King James VI. to begin a civil war against the Earl of Huntley, one of the leaders of the Catholic conspiracy. In 1597, after a civil war of two years, the Earls of Huntley and Errol, the two most prominent leaders of the Catholic plot, made their peace with the king by publicly abjuring Roman Catholicism and embracing Presbyterianism.

King James VI. had considerable trouble with the Presbyterian preachers, who arrogantly claimed the right to dictate even to the king. This contest caused a stubborn riot at Edinburgh, compelling the king to flee to Linlithgow. Thereupon he threatened to remove the courts of justice from Edinburgh, thus bringing the people of that city to their senses. They yielded, and the king returned to the capital, while the Presbyterian preachers who had caused the trouble fled into England.

Upon the death of Queen Elizabeth of England, March 24, 1603, King James VI. of Scotland was declared her successor on the English throne. James VI. at once set out for his new kingdom, and made his formal entry into London, May 6, 1603; and for the remaining twenty-two years of his life he was King of both Scotland and England, residing in his new kingdom during that period under the title of James I., and being represented in Scotland by a Lord High Commissioner. Thenceforth the crowns of Scotland and England were united, though each kingdom had its own Parliament and was independent of the other in everything else until 1707.

The union of the crowns of Scotland and England ended the savage warfare that had desolated the border for centuries. The border laws of both kingdoms were repealed; and it was agreed that all subjects of either kingdom born after the union should be citizens of the other also, and have the right to inherit and hold property in the other. Scotland thus gave a king to England, instead of receiving one from that kingdom. James VI. was freed from his dependence upon the turbulent Scottish lords, and was enabled to govern them with a stronger hand, as he could bring the resources of rich and powerful England to his aid in maintaining his authority in poor and weak Scotland.

SECTION XIV.—SPAIN UNDER PHILIP II., AND GERMANY.

WE HAVE seen that upon the abdication of the Emperor Charles V., in 1555 and 1556, his son PHILIP II. succeeded him in the sovereignty of Spain, Naples, Sicily, Milan and the Netherlands; while his brother FERDINAND I., Archduke of Austria, and King of Hungary and Bohemia, succeeded him on the German imperial throne; thus dividing the illustrious Hapsburg dynasty into a Spanish and an Austrian branch.

The accession of the Emperor Ferdinand I. was welcomed by the German princes and recognized by every European sovereign except Pope Paul IV., who declared that he only could sanction the abdication of Emperors, as he alone had the power to crown and depose them. This Pope therefore ordered Ferdinand I. to resign the imperial scepter, do penance for his presumption, and submissively await the pleasure of St. Peter's successor. Such pretensions, which Hildebrand and Innocent III. had been so able to enforce three and four centuries before, only excited ridicule in the greater part of Christendom when they fell from the lips of Paul IV.; and thenceforth the Emperors dispensed with the ceremony of being crowned by the Pope.

In pursuance of his unrelenting hostility toward the ex-Emperor Charles V. and of his son Philip II. of Spain and the Netherlands, Pope Paul IV. persuaded King Henry II. of France to break his solemn engagements with Charles V. in the Truce of Vaucelles in 1556. The Pope himself imprisoned the Spanish ambassador in Rome, and even laid Spain under an interdict. Philip II., whose religious scruples were more intense than those of Paul IV., deeply felt the Pope's severity, and wearied all his theologians for arguments to justify him in resisting the Pope; while Paul IV. was even forming an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent.

At length the Spanish army under the Duke of Alva overran the Campagna and approached the gates of Rome; and, though reverence forbade him to enter that holy city in arms, no scruple of humanity restrained him from massacring the innocent inhabitants of the captured villages. During the next winter a large French army under Francis, Duke of Guise, entered Italy to oppose the Spanish force under the Duke of Alva. The Duke of Guise marched to Rome; and, in the interest of his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine, he persuaded Pope Paul IV. to create ten new cardinals.

The French and Spanish armies advanced and retreated, marched and countermarched, to the great discomfort of the poor people whose fields were wasted and whose homes were desecrated by the brutal soldiery, with no decisive result for either the French or Spanish king. At length the Duke of Guise was recalled to France to defend that kingdom against Spanish invasion from the Netherlands; and Pope Paul IV. dismissed him with the following benediction: "Begone, then! you have done little for your king, less for your Church, nothing for your own honor!"

Peace was now necessary to the Pope, and the King of Spain was glad to desist from what he believed to be an impious warfare. The Duke of Alva, in his own name and in the name of Philip II., did penance for the crime of invading the Pope's dominions, and received absolution therefor from Paul IV. The territories belonging to Florence and Siena were united to form the Grand-duchy of Tuscany, which was ultimately bestowed upon the Medici, and remained in the possession of that family until its extinction in 1737.

Philip II. mustered an army of fifty thousand men in the Netherlands, among whom were ten thousand English troops which his wife, Queen Mary of England, had sent him in spite of the opposition of her Parliament

and the murmurs of her subjects. With these forces, the Duke of Savoy defeated the French in the battle of St. Quentin, almost annihilating their army. After Philip II. had joined the Duke of Savoy, the victorious Spaniards besieged St. Quentin for three weeks, and finally took the town after a gallant defense by the little French garrison under Admiral Coligni.

Ham, Noyon and Chauni were also taken by the Spaniards, but in the meantime the tide of victory had turned in favor of the French. The English allies of the Spaniards, never cordial, insisted on going home; while the German auxiliaries mutinied for want of pay. While the ex-Emperor Charles V., in his retirement at San Yuste, in the West of Spain, was calculating that his son must be in Paris, Philip II. had actually retired to Brussels, disbanded a portion of his army and sent the remainder into winter-quarters.

It was in this emergency that the Duke of Guise returned from Italy and was invested by the King of France with extraordinary powers. After making a feigned movement toward Luxemburg, he suddenly appeared before Calais with his entire army. This last English stronghold in France was negligently guarded, as the English believed that the overflow of the surrounding marshes in winter constituted an effectual defense. The French took the two forts in the first day's attack, and carried the town itself by assault after three bombardments, January 8, 1558. The capture of Guines followed two weeks later, and thus the English lost their last foothold in France after two centuries' possession. The universal discontent in England on account of this unnecessary war was heightened into indignation at this unexpected loss, and Queen Mary's death was hastened by remorse and disappointment.

The Guises ruled France during the captivity of the Constable Montmorenci, who had been taken prisoner by the Spaniards at St. Quentin. They now permitted the captive Constable to open negotiations with his Spanish captors; and two treaties were signed at Cateau-Cambresis, one between France and Spain, and the other between France, England and Scotland, April, 1559.

By the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis both Spain and France restored the conquests which their respective armies had made during the war; but France retained the bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun, which King Henry II. had wrested from Germany during his alliance with the Protestant German princes in their war with the Emperor Charles V. As Queen Mary of England, the wife of Philip II. of Spain, had died during the conferences for peace, the Spanish king engaged to marry Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of King Henry II. of France; while the Duke of Savoy, who was reinstated in his paternal inheritance, espoused the French king's sister Margaret.

The Peace of Cateau-Cambresis, in April, 1559, derives its chief importance from the fact that it marked a new division of the European powers, when national jealousies gave place to religious animosity. The Kings of Spain and France ended their long contest, so that both might be free to exterminate Protestantism in their respective dominions; while England, under Queen Elizabeth, assumed her place at the head of the Protestant states, and became the protectress of religious freedom in all European nations. Spain became the champion of Roman Catholicism, and every European sovereign who wished to coerce the consciences of his subjects looked to Philip II. for aid. Spain was undoubtedly the greatest power in Europe during this period, in consequence of her invincible infantry and her reputed wealth, drawn from her vast American possessions; but unwise and unjust restrictions on commerce had already cast a blight on her prosperity, and her decline had already commenced, though yet unnoticed.

Pope Paul IV., the old enemy of Philip II. and the Emperor Ferdinand I., surprised the world by his sudden plans for reform during the last year of his life. He dismissed his nephews, who had made his court scandalous by their robberies, murders and midnight riots. He also intro-

duced order and economy into his finances; and, to protect his Ministers from injustice, he caused a chest to be put in a public place, with an opening into which every man might cast his petitions or complaints, the Pope having the only key to the chest. But the Pope's reforms were almost harder to endure than his former extravagance; as his zeal took the direction of persecution, and he passed his last days in listening to the stories of the basest informers and in ordering arrests. Upon the death of Paul IV., in August, 1559, the Roman people immediately broke open the prisons and released the captives, threw down his statue, and cast its head with its triple crown into the Tiber.

Gian Angelo Medecino, who was then elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals and assumed the title of Pius IV., was an active old man, affable in manners and amiable in temper, himself no persecutor, but permitting the Inquisitors to proceed without molestation in their horrible task. His only near relative, his nephew, Charles Borromeo, was a clear and striking contrast to the nephews of other Popes who made *nepotism* notorious. After being appointed Archbishop of Milan, Charles Borromeo distinguished himself by the self-denying purity of his life, his frequent and laborious visits to the humblest and remotest mountain recesses of his diocese, and his ministrations to the poor during a frightful visitation of the plague. Pope Pius IV., unlike his predecessor, Paul IV., was a friend of both the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs; and he therefore recognized Ferdinand I. as Emperor, and consented to reconvene the Council of Trent in 1562.

As we have seen, the Council of Trent closed its last session December 4, 1563; after having excluded half of Christendom from the communion of the Church, and adopted reformatory measures which gave new vigor to the Roman Catholic Church and apparently checked the Protestant movement.

The Emperor Ferdinand I., the paternal uncle of Philip II. of Spain, died in July, 1564, after having reigned over the Germano-Roman Empire but eight years. His son, MAXIMILIAN II., had already been crowned King of Germany, as well of Hungary and Bohemia; and after his father's death he succeeded peaceably to the imperial crown. The new Emperor's justice and liberality long delayed the great war of religion which in the next century deluged Germany with blood for thirty years.

Pope Pius IV. died in 1565; and the Grand Inquisitor Ghislieri, who was then elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, assumed the title of Pius V. The new Pope's austere piety and unyielding will well qualified him to continue the reformation of the Roman Catholic Church. Being convinced of his own rectitude, he was just as sure that all who differed with him were guilty of the most unpardonable sin. He caused new prisons to be built to confine his multitudes of victims; and the fires of the Inquisition, or the executioner's ax, sent martyrs to their doom daily. He sent troops and money into France, with orders for the instant death of all heretics who could be taken. In 1570 he excommunicated Queen Elizabeth of England and absolved her subjects from their allegiance to her.

In the meantime Philip II. had been recalled into Spain by the progress of the Reformation in that kingdom. The middle and higher classes of Spaniards had Bibles in the Castilian dialect of the Spanish language, and the Lutheran doctrines had been introduced into the country in consequence of the constant intercourse with Ger many during the reign of Charles V.

Philip II., who was of a gloomy and misanthropic disposition, stern, haughty and cruel, and moreover a most bigoted Roman Catholic, was greatly alarmed by these signs of heresy in Spain; and he at once proceeded to exterminate the evil by the fires of the Inquisition, which had formerly been lit only for Jews and Moors. The burning of Protestants, called the *auto da fe*, "act of faith," became a common occurrence. Philip II. was successful in completely sup-

pressing the spirit of inquiry and free thought in Spain, and banishing the Bible and the Protestant doctrines from his kingdom, by a most cruel persecution. But his measures struck a death-blow to the prosperity of Spain, and threw that country back into the barbarism from which it has not yet fully emerged, as is proven by the fact that Spain had more printing-presses in the middle of the sixteenth century than in the middle of the nineteenth.

The attempt of Philip II. to introduce the Inquisition into the Netherlands led to his loss of those fair provinces, which succeeded in establishing their independence after a bloody struggle of forty years, when the Dutch Republic became one of the independent powers of Europe. The account of this interesting struggle, which was one of the most important events of modern times, will be given in full in a separate section.

Philip II. also revived his father's cruelties against the Moriscoes, or nominally Christian Moors of Spain, who still occupied the region of the Alpujarras. Though they were nominally Christians, they secretly maintained their old Mohammedan faith. In 1556 Philip II. issued an edict forbidding them to use their native language, to bestow Moorish names on their offspring, or to indulge in any of their most innocent national customs, and requiring them to send all their children between the ages of three and fifteen to Spanish schools.

Driven to desperation in 1568, the Moriscoes sprang to arms, massacred the Christian inhabitants of that region with the most barbarous cruelty, besought aid from the Turkish Sultan and from their Moorish brethren in Africa, and chose a descendant of the Ommíyad Khalifs of Cordova for their sovereign. After a furious struggle of three years, marked with all the violence of vengeance on the one side and desperation on the other, the revolt was crushed in 1571. The fugitive Moriscoes were hunted among their mountains like wild beasts, and their spirit was broken by a series of inhuman massacres, until the last symptoms of revolt were extinguished. The Moriscoes were almost exterminated in the struggle which the bigoted Spanish king's tyrannical measures had provoked.

In the meantime the Turks under Sultan Solyman the Magnificent were renewing their aggressions upon the nations of Christendom. In 1565 Solyman besieged the island of Malta, which had belonged to the Knights of St. John ever since Solyman had wrested Rhodes from them in 1522. The defense of Malta by the Knights of St. John in 1565 was one of the most valiant operations recorded in history. The Turks took the fort of St. Elmo; but that of St. Michael, under the command of the Grand Master La Valette, held out until Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, exhausted by a series of desperate assaults, relinquished the enterprise and sailed away to Constantinople in a rage. All the sovereigns of Christendom vied with each other in bestowing praises and gifts upon the Grand Master; and Valetta, the new capital of Malta, has borne his name ever since.

The next year, 1566, Sultan Solyman the Magnificent captured the far more valuable Greek island of Chios, the ancient Scio. The same year he renewed his invasion of Hungary, under pretense of supporting the claims of John Sigismund, son of John Zapolya, against the Emperor Maximilian II. Solyman died while besieging the fortress of Szigeth, September, 1566; but his troops took the fortress after a siege rendered memorable by the heroic death of the Hungarian commandant, who, when the fortress was no longer tenable, rushed into the ranks of the Janizaries with six hundred followers, and fell pierced with bullets and arrows. The victorious Turks forced their way into the citadel, and demanded of a page where his master's treasures were concealed. The young Hungarian replied: "My master possessed one hundred thousand ducats and a thousand golden cups, that are all destroyed; but he leaves you treasures of powder which will instantly burst beneath your feet." No sooner were these words uttered than the magazines exploded, and five thousand Turks perished.

Solyman's two elder sons had been put to death through the intrigues of his Russian wife, Roxolana, who thus prepared the way for the accession of her own son, SELIM II. The new Sultan was weak and profligate, and only secured the allegiance of the Janizaries by largely increasing the donative, which they demanded at every change of Sultans, as did the Prætorian Guards of Rome at the change of Emperors.

After making a truce with the Emperor Maximilian II., Sultan Selim II. directed his attention to the conquest of the island of Cyprus, which had been a dependency of the Venetian Republic for eighty years; but Venetian power was now on the decline, while the severity of its rule caused the Cypriots to regard the Turks as deliverers. In the summer of 1570 a Turkish army of fifty thousand men landed in Cyprus, whereupon the Venetians retired into the towns of Nicosia and Famagusta. The Turks took Nicosia in about two months, and captured Famagusta in August, 1571.

Pope Pius V., who was always an ardent foe of the Moslem power, was now aroused to the most strenuous exertions; and he united with King Philip II. of Spain and the Republic of Venice in a *Holy League* against the Ottoman power. The Holy League soon had a fleet of three hundred vessels in the Mediterranean. The command of this allied Christian fleet was assigned to Don John of Austria, the half-brother of Philip II. of Spain and the most accomplished knight of his time.

The Turkish fleet, which was larger than that of the Christian powers, had taken its position in the Gulf of Lepanto when the allied fleet appeared. The conflict which ensued, September 5, 1571, was one of the most memorable sea-fights of modern times. The Turks were thoroughly defeated with the loss of two hundred and twenty-four ships and thirty thousand men; and the fame of their invincible bravery and fortune, which had attained its zenith during the brilliant career of Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, ceased to be a terror to the nations of Christendom.

The Ottoman Empire began its decline from the day of the battle of Lepanto, in 1571. The triumphant Christians might have liberated Greece from the Ottoman yoke had they been more closely united and thus been enabled to follow up their great victory; but their forces were divided by rival interests, and the death of Pope Pius V. interupted their operations for a time. In 1573 Venice made a separate peace with the Ottoman Porte, ceding Cyprus and even consenting to pay an annual tribute. Sultan Selim II. died in 1574, his reign being signalized by the beginning of that series of contests between Turkey and Russia for the possession of the Black Sea which has not yet been ended.

Pope Gregory XIII., who succeeded Pius V. in May, 1572, was the author of the *New Style* of the calendar. The calendar had fallen into confusion, and Gregory XIII. rectified it by passing at once from the 18th of February to the 1st of March. The New Style of the calendar was only adopted gradually by the nations of Europe; and was not adopted in Great Britain and her dominions until 1752, on account of feelings of prejudice toward popery.

The Emperor Maximilian II. was the first of the European sovereigns who recognized the duty of universal toleration. He relaxed all religious despotism in his hereditary dominions, Austria and Bohemia; though his policy was frustrated in some measure by his near connection with the Spanish branch of his dynasty; he having married Mary, a sister of King Philip II., whose fourth wife was a daughter of Maximilian II. The Empress Mary was a devoted adherent of the Jesuits, but the Emperor made an inflexible resistance to the arts of that famous order. By a treaty with John Sigismund of Hungary, Maximilian II. secured the whole of that kingdom, except Transylvania; but he died in 1576, at the age of forty-nine, and was succeeded as Emperor by his son RUDOLF II., who had already become King of Germany, Hungary and Bohemia.

King SEBASTIAN of Portugal, whose

youthful mind had been instilled by Jesuits with romantic dreams of conquest over Moslems, led an expedition against the Moors of Africa in 1574, when he was twenty years of age; but little was accomplished in this first attempt. In 1578 King Sebastian led a second expedition into Africa to aid the fugitive Moorish king, Muley Mohammed, who had been driven from the throne of Morocco by his uncle; but Sebastian was defeated and killed in the battle of Alcazarquivir, August 4, 1578, and his army was almost annihilated, most of the nobles and prelates of Portugal perishing.

Sebastian was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his uncle, Cardinal HENRY of Braganza, who died in 1580, after a reign of only two years; whereupon several pretenders appeared to claim the Portuguese crown. DOM ANTONIO, Henry's brother, was crowned at Lisbon by the Portuguese party, in June, 1580.

The most powerful of the rival claimants for the vacant throne of Portugal was King Philip II. of Spain, who sent an army of twenty-four thousand Spanish and Italian veterans under the Duke of Alva into Portugal a few months after Henry's death; and Dom Antonio was defeated and wounded in the battle of Alcantara, and fled into France a few months later. The Duke of Alva set up a reign of terror in Portugal, similar to that which he had conducted in the Netherlands; but his victims in this instance were monks, not heretics. After the Duke of Alva had thus effected the conquest of Portugal, Philip II. entered the country to receive the homage of the Portuguese Estates, and devoted two years to arranging the affairs of the conquered kingdom. The union of Portugal with Spain lasted sixty years (A. D. 1580–1640).

The other powers of Europe had been too much absorbed in their own affairs to interfere with the aggressions of Philip II. France and England suddenly became conscious of the growth of the Spanish dominion, not only in the Iberian peninsula, but also over Portugal's rich and undeveloped possessions in Brazil, Africa and Southern and Eastern Asia; while the Phillippine Islands, in the Pacific Ocean, east of Asia, which derived their name from Philip II., had been settled in 1564 by a Spanish colony from Mexico.

France sent two naval expeditions against the Azores, those islands having declared for Dom Antonio. The Azores were of the greatest importance as a refitting and watering station for vessels sailing to the East or West Indies. The French and Spanish fleets fought a fierce conflict for the possession of those islands, ending in the destruction of the French fleet, and all the French prisoners being put to death as pirates; thus establishing the power of Philip II. firmly in the islands.

Pope Gregory XIII. died in 1585, and was succeeded by Sixtus V., one of the greatest of the Popes, and the most remarkable prince of the Church during the whole century of the Reformation. He had risen from the condition of a poor shepherd boy to be a Franciscan monk, then Inquisitor, then cardinal, and finally Pope. He was a man of strong and imperious nature, and maintained the discipline of the Church with inexorable severity. He sought to restore to the Chair of St. Peter its former splendor, and fixed the number of cardinals at seventy, in memory of the elders who aided Moses with their counsels. He improved the water supply of Rome, adorned the city with new edifices, drew the gigantic works of antiquity from their rubbish, and exterminated the banditti who had infested the Papal States during the inefficient pontificate of his predecessor. He died in 1590.

Philip II. adorned Spain with splendid edifices, among which was the famous palace of the *Escurial*, the grandest monument of his reign. This magnificent palace was built in honor of St. Lawrence, to whom Philip II. ascribed his victory over the French at St. Quentin. St. Lawrence was martyred by being broiled on a gridiron, and the ground-plan of the Escurial was made in imitation of the bars and handle of

this implement. This elegant palace contained the mausoleum of the Spanish kings.

The gloomy and misanthropic Philip II., shutting himself up in the Escurial, planned the extermination of Protestantism and the establishment of a powerful Roman Catholic empire in Western Europe under the supremacy of Spain; but the destruction of the Invincible Armada which he sent against England in 1588, and the gallant resistance of the Netherlanders to his tyranny, thwarted his schemes.

THE ESCURIAL.

Few events had transpired in Germany since the accession of the Emperor Rudolf II., in 1576. His Spanish education and the continued influence of the Jesuits induced him to expel all Lutherans from his hereditary dominions, Austria and Bohemia; and there was a strong Catholic reaction in Austria and Bavaria. The favorite studies of Rudolf II. were alchemy and astrology. His taste for astrology was of some service, as it led him to encourage the great astronomers, Kepler and Tycho Brahe, who were successively intrusted with the superintendence of his observatory at Prague.

A singular circumstance, which promised to extend Protestantism in Germany, actually strengthened the power of the Roman Catholic Church. The Archbishop-Elector of Cologne, desiring to marry the beautiful Agnes von Mansfeld, renounced his allegiance to the Romish Church, and openly adopted Lutheranism. He intended to secularize his province, as the Grand Master of the Teutonic Knights had done; but Prince Ernest of Bavaria, his former competitor for the archbishopric, was elected his successor. The Protestant German princes held aloof, and the deposed Archbishop-Elector passed the remainder of his life in retirement at Strasburg. Thenceforth for almost two centuries the Archbishop-Electors of Co-

logne were members of the Electoral dynasty of Bavaria, the House of Wittelsbach.

The German and Ottoman Empires became involved in another war in 1593, commencing with the defeat of the Turkish governor of Bosnia near Sissek, in June of that year. Sultan AMURATH III., who had succeeded Selim II. in 1574, immediately raised a large Turkish army, which captured Vesprim, but was afterward defeated by the Austrians. The next year, 1594, the principalities of Moldavia, Wallachia and Transylvania revolted from the Sultan and formed an alliance with the Emperor Rudolf II. Struck with dismay, Sultan Amurath III. sent to Damascus for the holy standard which was supposed to insure victory over the enemies of Islam; but Amurath III. died in January, 1595, without having experienced its miraculous help.

Sultan MOHAMMED III., the son and successor of Amurath III., secured his throne with the usual Turkish barbarity by murdering his nineteen brothers. The campaign of 1595 was disastrous to the Turks, as the Austrian army under Count Mansfeld took the important town of Gran and received the submission of the towns of Wissegrad and Waitzen.

The next year, 1596, Sultan Mohammed III. took the field in person, captured Erlau, in the North of Hungary, and defeated the Christians with a loss of fifty thousand men and one hundred cannon in a three days' battle at Keresztes. Vienna was seized with consternation, which spread throughout Europe; but as the Turks neglected to follow up their great victory they reaped no advantages therefrom.

The war lasted ten years longer, and was ended by the Peace of Sitvatorok, January 1, 1607, which showed a great abatement in the pretensions of the Turks, whose power had begun to decline. The Sultan recognized the Emperor Rudolf II. with his full imperial titles instead of slightly alluding to him as "King of Vienna," and relieved him of the degrading annual tribute hitherto exacted by the Ottoman Porte, in consideration of a large immediate payment; while the frontiers of the two empires remained almost as they had been in 1597.

Philip II. of Spain died September 13, 1598, after a disastrous reign of forty-two years, which was the grave of Spain's greatness. No sovereign ever ascended a throne with more magnificent prospects. Had his wisdom and justice been equal to his diligence, his vast inheritance would have made him by far the greatest monarch in Christendom. But he crushed Spain, ruined Portugal, lost the Northern Netherlands, and drained the Southern Netherlands of their prosperity; and, although the treasures of Spanish America flowed into his coffers, he died a bankrupt. His eldest son, Don Carlos, a youth of unhappy disposition, became insane through his father's severity and died in imprisonment.

PHILIP III., the youngest and only surviving son of Philip II., succeeded his father as sovereign of Spain, Portugal, Naples, Sicily, Milan and Spanish America. The proud monarchy which under the father of Philip II. had held the balance of power in Christendom, and had been the leading Christian power, rapidly declined under Philip's insignificant successor.

SECTION XV.—RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.

AT THE time of the accession of Philip II. to the sovereignty of Spain, Naples, Sicily, Milan and the Netherlands, in 1555, the Netherlands comprised seventeen provinces—the four duchies of Brabant, Guelders, Luxemburg and Limburg; the seven countries of Artois, Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Zutphen, Holland and Zealand; the five baronies of Mechlin, Utrecht, Friesland, Overyssel and Groningen; and the margravate of Antwerp. These

seventeen small but populous provinces contained over two hundred walled cities, one hundred and fifty chartered towns, six thousand three hundred small towns and villages, sixty strong fortresses, and a large number of castles, hamlets and farms.

The seventeen provinces differed from each other in language, customs and laws. A corrupt dialect of French was spoken in the four Walloon provinces which bordered on France. Flemish was spoken in the central provinces, and Dutch in the northern—both languages being derived from the German. But all the provinces were united by a common tie of industry and interest, and by their allegiance to the same sovereign, the King of Spain; while they also had a common legislative assembly, called the *States-General*, which convened at irregular intervals.

The Netherlands were the most prosperous portion of Europe, and their inhabitants were the most industrious and enlightened, it being a rare exception to find even a peasant among them who was unable to read and write. Agriculture was carried on to a high degree of perfection, and multitudes of skillful and industrious artisans were employed in manufactures; while the cities of Antwerp, Amsterdam and Rotterdam were the chief commercial centers of Europe.

The people of the Netherlands, or Low Countries, had long been among the freest in Europe; and among their chartered rights and liberties were the consent of their own Estates in the States-General to taxation, an independent judicature, and the exclusion of Spanish troops and officials. These rights had been occasionally infringed during the reign of Charles V.; but hostilities were prevented by the love of the great Emperor for the Netherlanders, among whom he had been born. Philip II., on the contrary, was a haughty Spaniard, who looked upon the Netherlands as a conquered country, and who occasionally violated their hereditary privileges.

It was among these free and intelligent people that the doctrines of the Reformation had received an early and favorable reception, and had obtained many adherents. This state of things gave great annoyance to the Emperor Charles V., and he endeavored by eleven successive edicts to check the growth of Protestantism. As his edicts failed, he finally introduced the Inquisition into the Netherlands, but greatly restricted its powers and sought to deprive it of many of the cruel features which had marked its course in Spain. Nevertheless, it was impossible to change the character of that infamous tribunal, and during the reign of Charles V. several thousand Protestant Netherlanders died the death of martyrs by its orders.

When Philip II., in 1559, left the Netherlands for Spain he assigned the regency of those fair provinces to his half-sister Margaret, Duchess of Parma. Her Council was composed of Granvelle, Bishop of Arras—afterward Archbishop of Mechlin and cardinal; Viglius, an experienced lawyer and statesman; and Count Barlaimont, an honest and loyal Flemish nobleman.

The most important man in the Netherlands was William, Prince of Orange, a friend and favorite of the Emperor Charles V., and a Catholic, but then only known for his vast wealth and his powerful connections. He was a member of the famous family known as the House of Nassau, which had been of princely rank in Germany for five centuries and had given one Emperor, and which was older in the Netherlands than the Houses of Hapsburg and Burgundy, to both of which Philip II. belonged.

The House of Nassau had lost the principality of Orange during the wars between the Emperor Charles V. and Francis I. of France, but that principality was restored to William by the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis, in April, 1559. William was a hostage in Paris before the conclusion of that peace, and King Henry II. of France then and there confidentially revealed to him the secret agreement between himself and King Philip II. of Spain for the extirpation of heresy in their respective dominions. Al-

though William of Orange was then a Roman Catholic, his just soul revolted from such a plot, and he was thus opportunely put on his guard.

The first step which alarmed the more liberal party in the Netherlands after the accession of Philip II. was the creation of many new bishoprics. Count Egmont, a highly distinguished Flemish nobleman, also a Roman Catholic, was sent into Spain to inform Philip II. of the growing discontents of the Netherlanders, and to ask redress. But Count Egmont was misled by the king's flatteries and gifts, and he returned to his anxious friends with extravagant views of the good intentions of Philip II.

Soon afterward the King of Spain ordered the Inquisition in the Netherlands to proceed without delay; declaring that he would rather lose a hundred thousand lives, were they all his own, than to tolerate the slightest deviation from the Catholic standards of faith. At the same time the laws against heresy were made so severe that reading the Bible and praying in one's own house were punishable with death. Philip's order of "death to heretics" caused thousands of Netherlanders to flee from the country. Thirty thousand Flemings settled in England, and their capital and skill in fine manufactures contributed to the growing prosperity of that country.

The Prince of Orange, though a Catholic, and then governor of Holland and Zealand, refused to consent to the burning of his Protestant subjects, as did also the Catholic governors of several other Netherland provinces. Two thousand persons of all sects and parties in the Netherlands now united for mutual defense. They denounced the Inquisition, but reasserted their loyalty to King Philip II. and their determination to keep down all tumult and rebellion. They presented a list of demands to the regent, who became alarmed by the number and powerful array of her petitioners, but she was reassured when one of her Councilors branded the petitioners as "only a pack of beggars." The petitioners seized upon the opprobrious term as a party watchword; and the next day it was adoped by them at a great banquet, where Count Brederode appeared carrying a wallet and a wooden bowl, which was passed around the table amid jovial shouts of "Long live the Beggars!"

The government replied to the petition by issuing an edict which it styled the "Moderation;" but, as the only concession which it made was that of permitting heretics to be hanged instead of burned, the Netherlanders called the decree "Murderation." The excitement increased; and thousands began to assemble in the woods by night, and afterwards in daylight on the open plains, to listen to preachers who harangued them upon the miseries of the country. The multitudes grew bolder; and eventually riotous mobs in Brussels, Antwerp and other Netherland towns demolished the cathedrals and destroyed the images of the Virgin and the saints. At length the regent Margaret, who was virtually a prisoner in her own house, was forced to sign a permission for Protestants to assemble for worship so long as they congregated unarmed and did not molest the Catholics, A. D. 1566.

Secret intelligence from Spain convinced the Netherlanders that an appeal to arms was inevitable. A battle was fought near Antwerp, in March, 1567, in which fifteen hundred of the "Beggars" were slain; and three hundred others were subsequently massacred. After vainly trying to mediate between the hostile parties, the Prince of Orange retired into Germany.

When Philip II. heard of the outbreaks in the Netherlands he tore his beard in rage; and, seeing the necessity of assigning the direction of affairs in the Netherlands to stronger and sterner hands than those of his half-sister, he sent the infamous Duke of Alva, a man of iron will and cruel inflexibility of purpose, to crush the revolt. The Duke of Alva arrived at Brussels with a Spanish army in August, 1567, and treacherously seized Counts Egmont and Horn and imprisoned them in a dungeon at Ghent, although they were Catholic nobles;

after which he organized an infamous tribunal in his own house at Brussels and by his own authority; and this tribunal soon justified its name, the "Council of Blood."

The Prince of Orange and the Netherland nobles who were with him in Germany were summoned to appear before the Council of Blood, but they replied by denying its authority. Count Buren, the eldest son of the Prince of Orange, was thereupon torn from his studies at the University of Louvain and sent a prisoner into Spain. As the Duchess Margaret of Parma was thus superseded in her command by the cruel Duke of Alva, she resigned the regency of the Netherlands and retired into Italy; whereupon the Duke of Alva assumed her powers and became Governor-General of the Netherlands.

In February, 1568, a decree of the Inquisition, confirmed by a royal edict ten days afterward, sentenced the whole population of the Netherlands to death, with a few exceptions specially stated. Although this extravagant decree was not literally executed, it was made the warrant for innumerable atrocities. Common criminals were hanged, nobles were beheaded, and obstinate heretics were burned. At first the king's officials obtained a revenue from the confiscated property of the victims of Spanish tyranny; but, as this revenue was soon exhausted, an arbitrary tax of one per cent upon all real estate and personal property, five per cent upon all transfers of real estate, and ten per cent upon all other articles sold, aroused the indignation even of the classes who had escaped the persecutions.

These measures struck a terrible blow to the prosperity of the Netherlands. Commerce ceased; towns were deserted; and people on the coast took refuge upon the sea or beyond, while many in the interior fled to the forests and became the terror of travelers and of the neighboring villages. The Prince of Orange granted letters of marque to many of the sea-farers, called "Sea-Beggars," who, as privateers, or pirates, preyed upon Spanish commerce and became a terror to Spanish seamen. The outlaws of the woods were known as "Wild Beggars."

The Emperor Maximilian II. remonstrated with his cousin, King Philip II. of Spain, and claimed the "Circle of Burgundy" as under his own protection; but Philip II. replied that he would rather not reign at all than reign over heretics, and that he would persevere in the policy which he had inaugurated though the skies should fall.

The Prince of Orange now mustered three armies from his own resources and from the contributions of the Dutch and Flemish cities, and planned a threefold attack upon the provinces held by the Spanish troops under the Duke of Alva. Before appealing to arms, the Prince of Orange published a "Justification," denouncing the Council of Blood and all the atrocious acts of the cruel Governor-General, and charging King Philip II. with having forgotten all his own royal oaths as sovereign of the Netherlands, as well as the services which the House of Orange had rendered to Philip II. and his ancestors. Two of the Netherland armies were defeated. The third patriot army, under Count Louis of Nassau, the brother of the Prince of Orange, achieved a brilliant victory over the Spaniards near Groningen; but his other brother, Adolf of Nassau, was killed, as was also the Spanish commander D'Aremberg.

Counts Egmont and Horn were tried by the Duke of Alva's Council of Blood at Brussels, and were hastily condemned and executed. As both were Knights of the Golden Fleece, they had a right to be tried only by the statutes of their order. Egmont might also have claimed the privileges of his native province, the duchy of Brabant—privileges which King Philip II. had solemnly guaranteed at his accession; while Horn, who was a German count, was subject only to trial by the Electors and princes of the Germano-Roman Empire. But law and equity were disregarded by the bigoted King of Spain and his cruel instrument, the Duke of Alva; and both Egmont and Horn were beheaded in the great square of Brus-

sels, June 5, 1568. Two years afterward Count Horn's brother, the Baron Montigny, who had gone on an embassy to Spain in 1566, was privately garroted in the prison to which he had been illegally consigned.

After the execution of Counts Egmont and Horn, the Duke of Alva marched against Count Louis of Nassau, who was defeated at Emden with the loss of his entire army, and escaped into Germany without any followers. His brother, the Prince of Orange, was soon afterward forced to disband his army; and both brothers proceeded with several hundred cavalry to the assistance of the Huguenots in the civil-religious wars of France, while waiting for a more auspicious time for the deliverance of their own oppressed country.

For four years the Sea-Beggars had carried their prizes into English harbors, where they obtained water and provisions, though England was then nominally at peace with Spain. Queen Elizabeth secretly supplied the Flemish patriots with money; while Philip II. sent gold, spies and assassins into England to instigate conspiracies against its Protestant queen. But at length the Queen of England, unwilling to declare war against the King of Spain, and unable to continue her assistance to the rebels of the Netherlands without doing so, forbade her subjects to sell food to the Sea-Beggars.

Thereupon De la Marck, a Flemish captain, with twenty-four vessels, sailed from England to the northernmost island of Zealand, and seized its capital, Briel, which he made the stronghold of the Sea-Beggars. Thus encouraged, the towns of Walcheren, Enckhuisen and many others in the Northern Netherlands hastened to cast off the oppressive yoke of the Duke of Alva and his despotic master, the King of Spain. Deputies from the nobles and cities assembled at Dort, July 15, 1572, and declared William, Prince of Orange, to be the lawful Stadtholder of the four provinces of Holland, Zealand, Friesland and Utrecht, during the absence of King Philip II. of Spain. This was the founding of the Dutch Republic; and Queen Elizabeth's order-in-council led directly thereto, though not so intended.

The Duke of Alva was in despair for the moment. The French court seemed to have become Protestant for the time, and to be resolved to espouse the cause of the heretics in the Netherlands. Count Louis of Nassau was besieged in Mons; but his brother, the Prince of Orange, had advanced with a force of German auxiliaries and captured Ruremond, Dendermonde, Mechlin and Oudenarde, and was on the point of relieving Louis when the situation was entirely changed by the news of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew in France.

An auxiliary force of Huguenot soldiers from France, paid by their king, Charles IX., to coöperate in the defense of Mons, were betrayed, and were massacred in cold blood after being taken prisoners, in accordance with their king's recommendation to the Duke of Alva. Mons surrendered to the Spaniards on honorable terms. All the towns of the duchy of Brabant and the county of Flanders were forced to submit to the Duke of Alva. Mechlin was the scene of a three days' pillage and massacre. The revolt in the southern provinces of the Netherlands was ended by defeat, but in the northern provinces it triumphed, and the Prince of Orange returned to Holland and came into possession of the government of the new Dutch Republic.

The Dutch fleet was frozen up in the harbor of Amsterdam during the winter of 1572–'73. The Spaniards marched across the ice to attack this fleet, but it was successfully defended by a troop of Dutch musketeers on skates. One of the most obstinate of the operations of the war was the siege of Haarlem. Several hundreds of the most honorable women enrolled and armed themselves for the defense of their native city, and participated in several battles. Thousands of Spaniards perished from cold, hunger and sickness; but Haarlem finally surrendered to the Spaniards, and between two and three thousand of its citizens were put to death. Warned by the dreadful example of Haarlem, the town of Alkmaar made so resolute a defense that

the Spanish commander was obliged to raise the siege.

The Duke of Alva was recalled from the Netherlands in 1573. According to his own boast, the death-sentence which the Council of Blood had pronounced against all "heretics" was so well executed that during his administration of six years (A. D. 1567–1573) eighteen thousand persons were put to death.

The Duke of Alva's successor as Spanish Governor-General of the Netherlands was Don Louis de Requesens, whose just and liberal character was a pledge of a more conciliatory policy. Wholesale robbery and massacre were now discontinued, but the arbitrary and oppressive taxes were still levied, and the Council of Blood continued its sittings.

The Netherland patriots were everywhere victorious at sea, but the invincible Spanish infantry maintained its old renown. Count Louis of Nassau marched with some German recruits to join his brother, the Prince of Orange, but was defeated and killed near Nimeguen, February, 1574.

The Spaniards now pressed the siege of Leyden with vigor, and the heroic defense of the city by the Dutch was one of the most remarkable events of the sixteenth century. The garrison was small, but the resistance was chiefly maintained by the valor and constancy of the citizens. Famine began its horrors in June, 1574, and the city was not relieved until October 3, 1574.

The Prince of Orange anxiously watched the foe from his head-quarters at Delft and Rotterdam, but could only bring his fleet to the relief of the beleaguered city by opening the dykes on the Meuse and the Yssel, and thus laying the country under water and flooding the Spanish trenches. The young grain was in the fields; but the states consented to the sacrifice, and the dykes were cut under the direction of the Prince of Orange.

The starving citizens of Leyden, from their towers, watched the rise of the flood from the sea which engulfed their fertile fields and which was to bring them relief. A provision fleet of two hundred vessels sailed from Delft, but the waters were twice driven back by an east wind, and the fleet lay helplessly stranded; while the more feeble and desperate citizens crowded around the burgomaster in the city, clamoring for either food or surrender. The burgomaster replied: "I have taken an oath never to put myself or my fellow-citizens in the power of the false and cruel Spaniards; and I will rather die than break it. But here is my sword; plunge it, if you will, into my breast, and devour my flesh, if that will relieve your hunger."

The starving people of Leyden were roused to new courage by the noble example of their burgomaster, and their patience was finally rewarded. A northwesterly gale which set in on October 1st forced the waters of the North Sea over the ruined dykes. The Dutch fleet was now fairly afloat, and it engaged in a strange midnight struggle with the Spanish fleet amid the boughs of orchards and the chimneys of submerged buildings; but the resolution of the Spaniards was finally worn out by the wonderful constancy and determination of the Dutch, in whose cause the elements of wind and water appeared enlisted. Even the fall of a large part of the walls of Leyden, which the waters had undermined, frightened the Spaniards only, and they hastily evacuated their two forts and fled. The Dutch fleet sailed up the channel thus formed, and distributed loaves of bread all the way to the crowds of hungry people along the banks.

No sooner were the pangs of hunger relieved than the entire population of Leyden walked in joyful procession to the principal church in the city, and there rendered thanks to God for their great deliverance. The next day a north-easterly gale swept the inundating waters back into the sea, and the dykes were soon repaired. The institution of an annual fair of ten days and the founding of a university at Leyden rewarded the citizens for their heroic defense, and that university has honored Europe with many illustrious men. The Synod of Dort in

1574 established Calvinism as the state-religion of the new Dutch Republic.

Thus defeated in war and ruined in finance, Philip II. of Spain at length accepted the mediation of his cousin, the Emperor Maximilian II., which he had refused so arrogantly before; and with this object a congress was held at Buda, in Hungary, for three months in 1575. But, as the Spanish king would make no concessions, and as the revolted Netherlanders had no reason to have any confidence in his word, the war was renewed with more than its former fury.

Don Louis de Requesens, the Governor-General of the Netherlands, died in March, 1576—an event which was followed by still greater confusion in the distracted country. The unpaid Spanish soldiery broke out into open mutiny, marched through the provinces, plundering and destroying without hindrance. They made themselves masters of the towns of Alost, Ghent, Utrecht, Maestricht and Valenciennes; and finally they subjected Antwerp, the richest city of the Netherlands, and then the banking center of all Europe, to a frightful pillage and massacre lasting three days, during which a thousand houses were reduced to ashes and eight thousand citizens slaughtered.

This disastrous state of affairs in the southern provinces of the Netherlands induced the Prince of Orange to persuade the authorities at Brussels to summon the States-General; and when that assembly was convened he complied with their request by sending several thousand troops to drive the Spanish soldiery from Ghent. An alliance, called the *Pacification of Ghent*, was now formed by all but one of the provinces of both the Northern and the Southern Netherlands, November 8, 1576; by which it was agreed to summon the Estates of all the Netherlands to an assembly like the one which had received the abdication of the Emperor Charles V., and also to drive all Spanish troops from the Netherlands and to provide for religious peace and toleration.

Just before the Pacification of Ghent, Philip II. of Spain appointed his half-brother, Don John of Austria, the victor of Lepanto, to the office of Governor-General of the Netherlands, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Don Louis de Requesens. But the Netherlanders were so united in resisting the Spaniards that Don John was obliged to enter even Luxemburg—the only Netherland city that had refused to join the others in the Pacification of Ghent—in the disguise of a Moorish slave, November, 1576.

As Don John was without money or soldiers, his only alternative was to concede all the demands of the revolted Netherlanders and to take an oath to observe all the charters and customs of the country: and these concessions were embodied in the *Perpetual Edict*—a name seemingly intended for mockery, as King Philip II. had instructed his half-brother to promise everything but to perform nothing. As the Netherlanders still refused to give Don John possession of the citadel of Brussels, he revenged himself by treacherously seizing the fortress of Namur and by capturing Charlemont and Marienburg; but the citizens of Ghent and Antwerp destroyed the citadels of those cities to prevent him from getting possession of them.

The Catholic nobles of the Netherlands now set up the Archduke Matthias of Austria, brother of the Emperor Rudolf II. of Germany, as a rival to Don John of Austria. The Prince of Orange recognized Matthias as Governor-General of the Netherlands, and was named his lieutenant. The bonds between the Northern and Southern Netherlands were more closely drawn together by the *Union of Brussels*, a new league of all the states of the Netherlands for the common defense, on the basis of perfect religious toleration. That was the last time that all the Netherlands were united until the first part of the nineteenth century (A. D. 1814–1830).

About this time Queen Elizabeth discovered a plot of Don John to depose her, marry Mary Stuart and reign over England; the plot being favored by Pope Gregory XIII. and by the Guises of France, but being

viewed with unbrotherly jealousy by the King of Spain. In consequence of this plot the Queen of England rendered more effective assistance to the Netherlands by sending six thousand men to aid the forces of the revolted provinces, early in 1578.

Philip II. had prepared for this action of England's queen by sending his nephew Alexander Farnese of Parma, the son of Philip's half-sister Margaret, the former regent of the Netherlands, with reinforcements of Spanish and Italian veterans. The army of the Netherlands was almost annihilated in the battle of Gemblours, but the struggling patriots were more than consoled for that disaster by the accession of Amsterdam to the Union of Brussels a week afterward.

In August, 1578, Don John was defeated at Rymenants, chiefly by the English auxiliaries, and died from disease two months afterward. His successor as Governor-General was Alexander Farnese of Parma, who was the greatest general of the time, though he did not possess that fascination of manner which rendered his predecessor so extremely popular.

In the meantime the Catholic party which had set up the Archduke Matthias of Austria discovered that he was a useless puppet, and virtually deposed him by calling in the Duke of Anjou, brother of King Charles IX. of France, and of Henry III., the next King of France. The Duke of Anjou was a weak and insignificant character, capable of being flattered by the high sounding title of "Defender of the Liberties of the Netherlands." He hoped to become King of England by marrying Queen Elizabeth—a hope which the English queen, by her subtle and wavering policy, neither indulged nor denied.

The Duke of Anjou entered the county of Hainault with a French army in September, 1578, and took several towns from the Spaniards; but he then feigned submission to the will of Queen Elizabeth by returning into France. As England's great queen believed firmly in the "divine right of kings," she was not favorable to the independence of the Netherlands, but she desired that their hereditary sovereign should be forced to respect their rights and liberties. Her council, however, desired to see the Netherlands severed from the crown of Spain, even if they became dependencies of France.

The union of the seventeen states of the Netherlands finally received its death-blow by the excesses of the popular party, and not by foreign despotism. An insurrection was incited at Ghent against the terms of the religious peace by two Protestant noblemen of radical principles and depraved character. The rebels imprisoned the governor of Ghent, and organized a democracy in which the legislative power was vested in the deans of the guilds and the captains of the militia, while the executive authority was assigned to a council of eighteen citizens. The same thing occurred in many other towns of the Southern, or Catholic, Netherlands.

The Archduke Matthias of Austria and the Prince-Palatine, John Casimir, supported the democracy; and these dissensions among the reputed friends of liberty were detrimental to the interests of the Netherlands. The arms which should have presented a united front to the common foe were turned against each other. The four Walloon provinces bordering on France were ravaged by a Huguenot force from that kingdom; while the Walloons, with French assistance, devastated the country as far as Ghent.

The destructive elements were mingled with the Huguenots of France in these disorders, which thus effectually severed the Southern, or Catholic, provinces of the Netherlands from the Union of Brussels. The Prince of Orange had vainly endeavored to suppress the revolutionary movements by protecting the interests of the Catholic priests and people; but he only succeeded in forming a closer union of the seven Northern, or Protestant, provinces of the Netherlands—Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Guelders, Overyssel, Friesland and Groningen—which were thus united in a perma-

nent league by the *Union of Utrecht*, in 1579, making the Dutch Republic a certainty. These seven provinces, while acknowledging a nominal allegiance to Philip II., resolved to drive all foreigners from the country and to restore the old laws, customs and privileges of each province.

A congress at Cologne, under the auspices of the Emperor Rudolf II., and attended by the envoys of the Netherlands, Philip II. of Spain, Pope Gregory XIII., several German states, France and England, failed to bring about the union and reconciliation of all the provinces of the Netherlands, as neither side would make any concessions, though seven months were occupied in diligent diplomacy.

The four Walloon provinces submitted to King Philip II. on condition that he should withdraw the Spanish troops; and thus the Netherlands were divided into three parts—the Protestant United States in the North; the middle or Flemish provinces, whose population was almost equally divided between Roman Catholicism and Protestantism; and the wholly Catholic Walloon provinces in the South.

Alexander Farnese of Parma took Maestricht at the close of June, 1579, after a siege of three months; and that city suffered terribly from the brutal rage of the victorious Spanish troops. Order was restored in Ghent by the Prince of Orange, who exacted a just restitution of property which had been plundered during the riots.

By the advice of Cardinal Granvelle, who had now returned to power, King Philip II. published his royal ban against William, Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic. By this sentence of outlawry the King of Spain denounced the crimes of Cain and Judas Iscariot against the illustrious and blameless patriot, set a price of twenty-five thousand gold crowns upon his head, and offered a title and rank of nobility to any one who would assassinate him, as well as pardon for all the crimes which he might have committed, however heinous they might be.

William of Orange replied to the Spanish king's denunciation by a most remarkable state-paper, in which he treated that denunciation with the contempt which it so richly merited. In this document William declared that Philip II. had forfeited all his hereditary claims upon the Netherlands by his violation of his solemn oaths and the charters of those states, "not once only, but a million of times." He indignantly hurled back upon the Spanish king himself the charge of having fomented discord in the Netherlands, as that monarch's atrocious cruelty had made his most loyal and peaceful subjects the victims of pillage and massacre. William ridiculed Philip's attempt to terrify him by setting a price upon his head, and inquired if the Spanish king could imagine him to be ignorant of the numerous previous efforts of bribed poisoners and assassins. The Prince of Orange sent his document to most of the sovereigns of Europe, affixed with his name and seal, which bore the characteristic motto: "I will maintain."

Negotiations were now resumed with the Duke of Anjou, and the Archduke Matthias of Austria was allowed to retire on a pension. The French prince signed an agreement to make his permanent residence in the Netherlands, to convene the States-General once a year, and to observe strictly the rights and privileges of the provinces. He was in turn invested with full sovereignty in all the provinces of the Netherlands, except Holland and Zealand, which were reserved for William, Prince of Orange.

The States-General of the Netherlands, assembled at the Hague, by a solemn *Act of Abjuration*, July 26, 1581, renounced all their allegiance to Philip II. of Spain, and declared Francis of Valois, Duke of Anjou, sovereign lord of the Netherlands. The Act of Abjuration was drawn up by Sainte Aldegonde, a friend of the Prince of Orange, and is the first distinct declaration of the natural right of a people to cast off their allegiance to an unjust sovereign. This state-paper asserted that princes are appointed by God to rule for the welfare of their subjects, and that if they neglect their

sacred duty by oppressing their people instead of protecting them the people are no longer bound in law or in reason to recognize their authority. This was a charter of political freedom similar to the American Declaration of Independence.

The Duke of Anjou led a French army of seventeen thousand men into the Netherlands, forced Alexander Farnese of Parma to raise the siege of Cambray, and entered that city in triumph. Several months afterward he made a joyous entry into Antwerp, where the Prince of Orange invested him with the ducal cap and mantle, and duly proclaimed him *Duke of Brabant and Margrave of the Holy Roman Empire.* Other Netherland provinces successively installed him in their respective sovereignties; but he was dissatisfied with the limited power thus conferred, and was intensely jealous of the superior influence of the Prince of Orange. He was even already plotting with his worthless favorities to overthrow the very liberties which he had solemnly sworn to maintain.

The Flemings had never trusted the Duke of Anjou; and when he brought his army to take military possession of Antwerp, under pretense of a review, in January, 1583, the inhabitants of that city rose in arms against him, secured their streets with chains and barricades, and made so determined a resistance that only half of the French soldiers escaped from the city with their lives. Antwerp suffered less from the "French Fury" of 1583 than from the "Spanish Fury" of 1576, mainly because the French troops of the Duke of Anjou commenced plundering before they massacred, while the Spanish troops of the Duke of Alva first slaughtered and then easily took possession of the property of their victims.

As the Duke of Anjou was thus frustrated in his design, he fled on horseback in the direction of Dendermonde. A dyke was opened on his route, and a thousand of his followers were drowned. Having thus by his own act ceased to be the "Defender of the Liberties of the Netherlands," the Duke of Anjou retired to Dunkirk, and soon left the country never to return, though a treaty of reconciliation was signed in March of the same year, 1583.

As the Spaniards had by this time completed the conquest of Portugal, Alexander Farnese of Parma received large reinforcements from Spain, and was thus enabled to resume active operations. The patriot party only retained possession of three Flemish towns before the autumn of 1584.

The greatest loss sustained by the Netherland patriots was the assassination of their great leader, William, Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, in July, 1584. Five attempts had been made upon his life in two years by the agents of the King of Spain. The first of these attempts was so nearly successful that his wife died from anxiety and suspense in consequence. The last and successful attempt was that of the fanatic Balthazar Gerard, of Franche-Comté, who gained admission to the household of the Prince of Orange under pretense of obtaining a passport, and shot him at the door of the royal banqueting-hall at Delft. The assassin was instantly seized and put to death with horrible cruelty; but his parents received the rewards which King Philip II. had promised the assassin, and the lasting badges of their shame were three lordships in Franche-Comté with a title among the landed aristocracy.

The Netherland patriots deeply mourned their dead leader, and little children cried in the streets. The Dutch Republic owed its existence to the self-denying and steadfast energy of William of Orange, though he was not permitted to live to see its freedom established. He was the greatest statesman of his time, and possessed in a remarkable degree the art of reading the designs of others and concealing his own purposes; and this last accomplishment gave him the surname of *the Silent*, rather than any social taciturnity of manner.

He had spent his vast fortune in his country's service; and he had repeatedly refused the most tempting offers of wealth and dominion, by which Philip II. of Spain had

endeavored to detach him from the patriot cause. Philip II. had offered to release his imprisoned son, and to confer cities, estates and sovereignties in Germany upon William himself, who, in fact, had only to name his terms for deserting the often seemingly hopeless cause of the Netherlands. In alluding to the magnificent offers made to him, the Prince of Orange had afterward said: "They well knew that I would not for property nor for life, for wife nor for children, mix in my cup a single drop of the poison of treason."

The murdered leader's son, Count Buren, was still detained a prisoner in Spain—an alien as much from his father's faith and patriotism as from his home. Upon William's assassination, his second son, Prince Maurice of Orange, then only eighteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed Stadtholder of Holland, Zealand and Utrecht, and High Admiral of the Union.

The siege of Antwerp lasted almost a year and taxed all the masterly talents of Alexander Farnese of Parma, while the ability of Sainte Aldegonde and the extraordinary valor and constancy of the citizens were displayed in the defense of the city. The Spaniards spent half a year in constructing a fortified bridge or causeway below the city to cut off its communication with the maritime provinces. The garrison vainly endeavored to destroy this bridge by means of fire-ships, and sought to open a new passage to the sea, but were defeated in a bloody battle fought upon the dykes.

Antwerp finally surrendered, A. D. 1585. Its fortress was rebuilt from the ruins of private dwellings, and with the entry of a Spanish garrison and the Jesuits "civilization and commerce departed." So complete was the desolation and decay that grass grew and cattle fed in the streets of the city which had been the banking center of all Europe; while the intelligence, thrift and industry of its citizens found other homes.

As Queen Elizabeth of England knew herself to be marked as the victim of a plot similar to the one which had ended the life of William of Orange, she now concluded an open alliance with the Dutch Republic and sent money and troops to its assistance, justifying her action before the world by a state-paper in which she enumerated the iniquities of the Spanish government toward the Netherlands and the secret hostilities of the King of Spain toward herself.

In return for the assistance of England's queen, the Dutch Republic placed Flushing and Briel in her possession as security for the moneys expended, and bestowed the title of Governor-General upon the Earl of Leicester, the commander of the English forces in the Netherlands. Although Queen Elizabeth had repeatedly refused the sovereignty of the Netherlands when it was offered to her, she burst into a furious rage when she was informed of her favorite general's acceptance of that dignity.

Queen Elizabeth's sharp reprimand to the Earl of Leicester was read in the presence of the States-General of the Netherlands, and contributed much toward neutralizing all the advantages of the alliance, as it aroused strong suspicions that the English queen was secretly in correspondence with the King of Spain—suspicions which were not wholly groundless. In retaliation for Elizabeth's manifesto, Philip II. seized all English subjects and all English property in his dominions at that time, and Alexander Farnese of Parma pressed hostilities in the Netherlands with redoubled vigor.

In September, 1586, the English under the Earl of Leicester besieged Zutphen; and it was in a skirmish before that city that the gallant Sir Philip Sidney, the most accomplished knight and the gentlest spirit of the age, received a wound which caused him to die the death of a hero three weeks afterward at Arnheim. The Earl of Leicester soon proved his military incompetency, and returned to England at the close of 1587; whereupon Prince Maurice of Orange was assigned the chief command of the forces of the Dutch Republic, while Lord Willoughby was left in charge of the English troops only.

As we have seen in the history of England,

the execution of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, at Fotheringay Castle, in England, in Februrary, 1587, by order of Queen Elizabeth, aroused the wrath of Philip II. of Spain and of Pope Sixtus V. against England's Protestant queen; and the Spanish king sent the Invincible Armada against England in the summer of 1588 for the conquest of that kingdom as preliminary to the subjugation of the Netherlands and the overthrow of Protestantism in Europe. The destruction of that gigantic Spanish fleet by the English navy and by a series of furious tempests virtually secured the independence of the Dutch Republic.

The English retaliated in 1589 by invading Portugal in a vain attempt in the interest of Dom Antonio, and became masters of the suburbs of Lisbon and seized sixty Hanseatic vessels laden with supplies for a new armada. The Spaniards were not prepared for another encounter with English bravery.

In the Netherlands the military operations of the Spaniards were paralyzed by an exhausted treasury, as the soldiers of Alexander Farnese of Parma were unpaid and almost starved; and that commander was ordered by King Philip II. to lead his army into France in the interest of the Catholic party in that kingdom, the throne of which had just received a Protestant king, Henry IV., the first Bourbon sovereign of France.

The wise and victorious generalship of Prince Maurice of Orange reunited the Seven Provinces of the Dutch Republic. He overran the county of Flanders and the duchy of Brabant, and established himself on the left banks of the Meuse and the Scheldt.

Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma, the Spanish Governor-General of the Netherlands—whose remarkable military talents and state-craft preserved the Flemish provinces to Spain—died in December, 1592; and the Archduke Ernest of Austria, brother of Matthias and of the Emperor Rudolf II., was appointed to the Governor-Generalship of the Netherlands by the Spanish king.

War was declared between France and Spain in January, 1595, and Spanish armies invaded France both from Spain itself and from the Netherlands. The Spaniards took Cambray, October 2, 1595, and Calais in April, 1596. As Queen Elizabeth feared a Spanish invasion of England, she entered into an alliance with King Henry IV. of France and with the Dutch Republic. The defeat of the Spanish fleet in the harbor of Cadiz by the combined English and Dutch fleets under Sir Francis Drake, who destroyed between thirty and forty Spanish merchantmen, was followed by the abandonment of the city to the victorious allies, whose fleets returned home laden with great spoil, A. D. 1596.

The next year another English and Dutch naval expedition was defeated by a furious tempest, which also destroyed the second armada which Philip II. of Spain had fitted out for another attempt to invade England, with the design of dethroning Queen Elizabeth and placing his favorite daughter upon the English throne. The English fleet, which had merely been driven back to port, then sailed to the Azores and captured Fayal, Graciosa and Flores, A. D. 1597.

In the Netherlands, Prince Maurice of Orange defeated the Spaniards at Turnhout, mainly by the then novel device of supplying his cavalry with fire-arms. The Spaniards under the Archduke Albert of Austria soon afterward took the town of Amiens, in France, by stratagem; but the French forces under King Henry IV. recaptured the town after a siege of a few months.

King Philip II. of Spain was now aged and infirm and drained of his resources, and he consented to a peace with France, through the mediation of Pope Clement VIII., who had long been desirous of uniting the forces of Christendom against the heretics and the Turks; and by the Peace of Vervins, in May, 1598, Philip II. restored all the conquests which his armies had made from the French, except the fortress of Cambray.

In August, 1598, the Infanta Isabella, daughter of Philip II., was acknowledged sovereign of the Netherlands and Franche-

Comté. Her intended consort, the Archduke Albert of Austria, received an equal share in the government; and both were called "the Archdukes," in order to render their dignity identical. Philip II. died the next month, September 13, 1598, without seeing the end of the war which his bigotry and tyranny had provoked in the Netherlands, and which had already lasted more than thirty years.

At the close of the sixteenth century the Dutch Republic was the leading maritime power of Europe. Its prosperity had been increased by immigration from the southern provinces of the Netherlands, which were still held and oppressed by the Spaniards; so that new towns had to be built in the Dutch Republic or new streets added to the old towns, in order to accommodate the manufacturers and merchants from the duchy of Brabant and the county of Flanders. In these two provinces villages and even towns were depopulated; so that foxes, wolves and wild boars prowled over the land which had been once occupied by a thriving population, two hundred persons having been killed by wild beasts in the immediate vicinity of Ghent in one year, 1586–'87.

By extending and confirming its power, the Dutch Republic had been able in the meantime to inflict several severe blows upon the Spanish dominion. Prince Maurice of Orange defeated the Spanish army of the "Archdukes" before Nieuport, capturing one hundred standards and all their artillery and baggage. The siege of Ostend by the Archduke Albert lasted almost four years (A. D. 1601–1604), and the Dutch defeated a formidable assault of the Spaniards by opening the dykes and thus drowning many of the assailants.

In 1602 the Spanish army engaged in the siege of Ostend was reinforced by the famous Genoese general, Ambrose Spinola, with eight thousand troops; while the Dutch were reinforced by six thousand English troops under Sir Francis Vere, sent to their aid by Queen Elizabeth. The death of the great English queen, in March, 1603, was a severe loss to the Protestants throughout Europe, to whom she had been a powerful protectress, notwithstanding her inconsistencies; and her successor, James I., who was a still more obstinate believer in the "divine right of kings," looked upon the Dutch as rebels and traitors.

The siege of Ostend, in which one hundred thousand men had perished, ended with the surrender of the city to the Spaniards, September 20, 1604; but before its fall the Dutch captured Sluys and all the ships in its harbor.

A large party in Holland, under the leadership of the Grand Pensionary, Van Olden Barneveldt, now desired peace, though all were agreed to treat with Spain only on the condition of the independence of the Dutch Republic. In the spring of 1607 a truce of eight months on land was arranged, but the Dutch admiral Heemskirk was sent from Amsterdam with a formidable fleet to harass the coasts of Spain and Portugal and to protect the Dutch ships returning from the East and West Indies. This Dutch fleet destroyed almost the whole Spanish fleet in a fierce battle in the harbor of Gibraltar, both admirals being slain; but the Dutch fleet was scarcely injured, and was able speedily to intercept the treasure-galleons and merchantmen from Spanish America.

King Philip III. of Spain was obliged to beg a truce from the "Sea-Beggars;" but he refused to treat with them on any other condition than as his subjects, and signed his treaty, "I, the king," without the Great Seal, which was indispensable in all treaties with foreign powers.

Through the mediation of France and England, a truce for twelve years was signed at Bergen-op-Zoom, April, 1609, by which the Dutch Republic virtually secured its independence, after a struggle of forty years. By this treaty the Dutch secured possession of the spice-bearing Molucca Islands in the East Indies, along with the privilege of trade with both the East and West Indies. The Dutch Republic also increased its home territories by the annexation of the whole

of Dutch Flanders and several important towns on the frontiers of Brabant, and by the possession of forts they obtained command of the Scheldt. But it was almost forty years later before Spain formally acknowledged the independence of the Dutch Republic, which was finally done by the Peace of Westphalia, in October, 1648, which ended the Thirty Years' War in Germany and the Eighty Years' War of Independence in the Netherlands.

The Southern, or Catholic, provinces of the Netherlands—the present Kingdom of Belgium—under the name of the *Spanish Netherlands*, continued to belong to the Spanish crown until 1714; when, by the Treaty of Rastadt, they were ceded to the Austrian House of Hapsburg, which held possession of them for almost a century under the name of the *Austrian Netherlands*.

No sooner had the Dutch Republic achieved its independence than it began to be distracted by unhappy religious disputes between the Calvinists and the new sect of the Arminians, respecting the Augustinian and Calvinistic doctrine of predestination. The strict Calvinistic party were led by the Stadtholder, Prince Maurice of Orange; while the Arminians, or moderate party, who rejected Calvin's severe views on predestination, were led by many of the best men in the country, among whom were the Grand Pensionary, Van Olden Barneveldt, the author of the constitution of the Dutch Republic, and Hugo Grotius, the renowned jurist and the learned historian of the Dutch War for Independence.

The Synod of Dort in 1618 decided in favor of the strict Calvinistic doctrine, and condemned the Arminians without a hearing, also banishing or deposing the Arminian preachers. The noble patriot Van Olden Barneveldt, who had done more for the freedom of Holland than any other man except William of Orange, whose friend he was, was then condemned to death. Barneveldt disdained to ask Maurice of Orange to spare his life. Maurice, who could have saved it, declined to interfere; and the unfortunate Barneveldt was beheaded, in the seventy-second year of his age, May 14, 1619. Hugo Grotius was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, but was finally rescued by the cunning of his faithful wife.

The legislative power of the Republic of the United States of Holland was vested in an assembly called the States-General; and the executive power was exercised by a High Council, at the head of which was a Stadtholder. Holland emerged from her long struggle for independence strong and prosperous. The Dutch navy was the largest in Europe, and for almost two centuries Holland was the most powerful commercial and maritime rival of England. The Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602, and many of the Portuguese possessions in the East Indies were taken possession of by the Dutch. The most flourishing of the Dutch colonies was the city of Batavia, in the island of Java, which was founded in 1619, and which became the capital of the Dutch colonial empire in the East Indies.

The most prominent of the Dutch colonial possessions were Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, in South America, founded in 1580; the Spice Islands, wrested from the Portuguese in 1607; the Gold Coast of Guinea, in Western Africa, wrested from the Portuguese in 1611; Batavia, in the island of Java, founded in 1619; New Netherlands, in North America, founded in 1623; the Cape of Good Hope, in Southern Africa, colonized in 1650; and the island of Ceylon, wrested from the Portuguese in 1656.

In the East Indies the Dutch obtained exclusive possession of the large islands of Java, Sumatra, Borneo and Celebes, the peninsula of Malacca, and two posts in Hindoostan. The Dutch also colonized some small islands in the West Indies. Their colonial policy was very arbitrary and exclusive.

Prince Maurice of Orange died in April, 1625, and was succeeded as Captain-General of the United States of the Netherlands by his brother Frederick Henry, who was also elected Stadtholder of Holland, Zealand and West Friesland.

SECTION XVI.—WARS OF RELIGION IN FRANCE.

THE Protestants of France had been cruelly persecuted during the reign of Francis I., who said in a vehement speech before the Bishop of Paris that if one of his limbs was infected with heresy he would cut it off, and that he would sacrifice his own son if he were guilty of that crime. On that occasion six Lutherans were burned alive in the most cruel manner, being alternately let down and drawn up from the flames by means of a machine until they expired.

HENRY II. was in his twenty-ninth year when he succeeded his father, Francis I., on the throne of France, March 31, 1547. He disregarded his father's dying advice not to employ the Constable Montmorenci in any post of authority and to curb the rising power and ambition of the Guises with a strong hand, and dismissed his father's Ministers, recalled Montmorenci, and conferred the highest offices on the Guises.

The events of the foreign wars of Henry II. of France—his alliance with the Elector Maurice of Saxony in his war against the Emperor Charles V.; his seizure of Metz, Toul and Verdun, in 1552; the Emperor's unsuccessful attempt to recapture Metz, in 1553; the capture and destruction of Terouenne by Charles V., in 1553; the campaign of the French under the Duke of Guise against the Spaniards under the Duke of Alva in the Papal States, in 1557; the defeat of the French by the Spaniards at St. Quentin, in 1557; and the capture of Calais from the English by the French under the Duke of Guise, in 1558—have all been related in detail, and need not be repeated here.

The capture of Calais made Francis, Duke of Guise, the most popular man in France. The Guises were a powerful family of Lorraine, and were descended from Réné of Anjou. During the captivity of the Constable Montmorenci, who had been taken prisoner by the victorious Spaniards in the battle of St. Quentin, the Guises ruled France through the important civil, military and ecclesiastical offices which they held in the kingdom.

The Duke of Guise was Lieutenant-General; and his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine, was Minister of the Interior and of Finance. A third brother commanded the French fleet, and a fourth had charge of the French army in Piedmont. They ruled Scotland through their sister Mary, the widow of King James V. of that kingdom; Mary being the regent for her young daughter, Mary Stuart, the unfortunate Queen of Scots, who spent most of her girlhood at the French court, where she was educated. The marriage of this young Queen of Scots with the Dauphin Francis, April 8, 1558, increased the power of her mother and uncles, the Guises, in both France and Scotland. A secret article of this marriage treaty stipulated that the crowns of France and Scotland should be forever united.

The power of the Guises, who were bigoted Catholics, hastened the religious crisis in France; while the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis, April 2, 1559, between France, Spain, England and Scotland, divided Europe into two great religious parties, and gave rise to the fierce wars of religion which distracted Western Europe for the last forty years of the sixteenth century. By this treaty France surrendered one hundred and eighty-nine towns and fortresses in various parts of Europe, relinquished all of Savoy and Piedmont, except Turin and four other fortresses, and restored her conquests in Italy and the Netherlands; but she retained Calais and Guines, which she had wrested from England, and Metz, Toul and Verdun, which she had wrested from the Germano-Roman Empire. The Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Henry II. of France, was married to Philip II. of Spain; and Henry's sister Margaret was

married to the Duke of Savoy, Emmanuel Philibert, Iron Hand.

During the reign of Henry II. the French government was utterly corrupt; the king's mistress, Diana of Poitiers, selling the offices of state in the most shameless manner; while his queen, Catharine de Medici, was neglected by her royal husband, and was without any authority during his entire reign.

In spite of persecution, the Reformation made remarkable progress in France during the reign of Henry II.; in the last year of which the *Huguenots*, as the French Protestants were called, had about two thousand places of worship in the kingdom, which were attended by congregations numbering over four hundred thousand persons. The Huguenots were Calvinists in faith and worship, and their acknowledged chief was the first prince of the blood royal, Antoine de Bourbon, who had become King of Navarre by his marriage with Jeanne d'Albret, the heiress of the Navarrese crown. The other recognized Huguenot leaders were the Prince of Condé, Admiral Coligni and his brother, the Sire d'Andelot, and other great French nobles.

The growing strength of the Huguenot party alarmed the French court. As we have seen, a secret article of the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis pledged Kings Henry II. of France and Philip II. of Spain to exterminate heresy within their respective dominions.

The Calvinistic Church of France had organized itself during the month following the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis. Calvin's rescripts issued from Geneva were received by the Protestants of France with as much reverence as were those of the Pope by the adherents of the Romish Church. The Huguenots were most numerous among the more intelligent classes of France, and included many bishops, clergy and monks.

With the approval of King Henry II., Pope Paul IV. issued a bull providing for the establishment of the Inquisition in France; but the Parliament of Paris refused to register the king's edict for this purpose, and intrusted proceedings in matters of religious faith to two committees of the Parliament itself, one of which was called the *Burning Chamber*, because of the many victims whom it consigned to the flames. The Parliament of Paris condemned these rigors in 1559; but King Henry II. personally interfered in the discussion, and by his orders seven members of the Parliament who advocated a more merciful policy were arrested and imprisoned. To the remonstrances of the Calvinistic synod the king replied that he would himself witness the burning of one of these prisoners.

The resolute resistance of the Parliaments of Paris and the provinces and the courts of justice to the measures of the king and the Pope aroused the anger of Henry II., and he prepared to crush with a strong hand all opposition to his will. Appreciating their peril, the Huguenots organized for their defense, and appealed to the Protestants of Germany for assistance.

In this crisis, King Henry II. met with an accidental death in the prime of life, one month after his visit to the Parliament of Paris. The marriages of the two French princesses which followed the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis were celebrated at Paris with great festivities and rejoicings. Among the ceremonies was a grand tournament, which was held in the space between the royal hotel and the tower of the Bastile, where the imprisoned members of the Parliament of Paris were incarcerated. Henry II. challenged the captain of his guard, the Count of Montgomery, a Scottish nobleman, to a tilt. Henry's queen protested, and the Count of Montgomery endeavored to excuse himself from the encounter; but the king persisted, and the tilt took place. Both lances were shivered, and a splinter from that of the Scottish nobleman entered the king's eye between the bars of his helmet, so that the monarch fell senseless to the ground. He survived in a state of insensibility for eleven days, and then died in the forty-first year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign, July 10, 1559.

FRANCIS II., the son and successor of

Henry II., was a weak and sickly youth in his sixteenth year when he became King of France, and was completely under the influence of his wife, Mary Stuart, the young Queen of Scotland, who was in her turn ruled by her uncles, the Guises, who were the real masters of both France and Scotland for a year, and who sought to crush the Reformation in both kingdoms, but encountered a determined resistance in both, which soon burst forth in the flames of civil war.

The queen mother, Catharine de Medici, allied herself with the Guises for the time, and patiently waited for an opportune moment to overthrow them and to take their place as the real ruler of France. The reign of Francis II. began with a relentless persecution of the Huguenots, thus arousing a spirit of determined resistance. The Guises were held responsible for the cruelties inflicted upon the French Protestants; and, as that family was a younger branch of the reigning ducal dynasty of Lorraine, which owed allegiance to the Germano-Roman Empire, they were regarded in France as foreigners.

The arrogance of the Guises made many enemies for them even among the Roman Catholics of France, and the party which opposed that powerful family was largely a national party, so that France was as much divided by political as religious dissensions. The old feudal nobility of France and the highest princes of the blood royal were on the side of the Huguenots; while the Guises were supported by the queen mother, Catharine de Medici, and by the powerful influence of Pope Paul IV. and Philip II. of Spain.

The national party, which favored the Huguenots, or at least general toleration in religious faith, resented the persecuting policy of the Guises, not alone for its inhumanity, but also as the impertinent interference of foreigners. The national party demanded that the States-General be assembled, but the government refused this demand. Thereupon the Huguenots organized the *Conspiracy of Amboise* to drive the Guises from power and try them for maladministration, to summon the States-General, to get the young king into their own possession, and to make Antoine de Bourbon regent. The plot was betrayed; and the Guises took a bloody vengeance upon their enemies, causing twelve hundred persons to be executed for complicity in the conspiracy.

The cruelties of the Guises caused a reaction throughout France in favor of the Huguenots, and really strengthened that sect instead of destroying it. The queen mother, Catharine de Medici, now advocated milder counsels, and caused Michel de l' Hopital to be appointed Chancellor. His first act was to secure the publication of the *Edict of Romorantin*, committing the punishment of heresy to the bishops exclusively. As this prevented the establishment of the Inquisition in France, it was really a gain for the French Reformers.

King Francis II. also agreed to summon the States-General, which had not been convened for seventy-six years. These concessions greatly elated the Huguenots, who began to entertain hopes of overthrowing the Guises after all. The Guises were resolved upon destroying the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé, the leaders of the movement against them; and, after obtaining evidence implicating these Protestant leaders in the Conspiracy of Amboise, they caused the Prince of Condé to be arrested and sentenced; but the sudden death of Francis II., December 5, 1560, saved the Bourbon princes from death.

In the meantime the dominion of the Guises had been overthrown in Scotland by the surrender of Leith to a combined Scottish and English army, after a long and severe siege, during which Mary of Guise, the queen-regent of Scotland, had died; and by the Treaty of Edinburgh the French evacuated Scotland, and Queen Mary Stuart and her husband, Francis II. of France, were forced to drop the arms and title of King and Queen of England, A. D. 1560.

CHARLES IX., a boy of nine years, succeeded his brother Francis II. as King of France; and the queen mother, Catharine de Medici, became regent for her little son

without opposition. The supremacy of the Guises in France was shaken by the new turn of affairs, and the leaders of the Huguenot party came into power. Catharine de Medici spared the lives of the Bourbon princes; so that, by playing off one party against the other, she might maintain her own ascendency. By holding the balance of power evenly between the two parties and by allowing neither to predominate, the queen-regent hoped to strengthen her own power. As the King of Navarre had resigned his claims to the regency in France, she appointed him Lieutenant-General of the kingdom, and released the Prince of Condé from prison and assigned him a place at her council board.

The States-General assembled at Orleans, December 13, 1560; but, as they were startled by the enormity of the public debt, they declared that they could accomplish nothing, and were dissolved in January, 1561. On the same day the Edict of Orleans granted most of the reforms which the Huguenots had demanded, and put a stop to religious persecution. For a while the queen-regent, Catharine de Medici, offended by the arrogance of the Guises, courted the favor of the Huguenots.

The Constable Montmorenci, who had always been a friend of Spain and a devoted Catholic, now united with Francis, Duke of Guise, and Marshal St. André in a *Triumvirate* for the suppression of heresy; but, as the drift of affairs was then against them, they retired from court.

The States-General convened again in August, 1561, after a new election in which the Huguenots were victorious. This new States-General confirmed Catharine de Medici in the regency; but insisted that no cardinal should be a member of the Council of Regency, because he owed allegiance to a foreign sovereign, the Pope; that no bishop should be admitted into the same council, because the law required him to reside within his diocese; and that no *foreigner*—meaning the Guises—should have a place in the council.

An important conference of divines was held at Poissy, in September, 1561, in the presence of the boy king, Charles IX.; his mother, the queen-regent, Catharine de Medici; Antoine de Bourbon and Jeanne d' Albret, the King and Queen of Navarre; and many prelates and theologians. Theodore Beza of Geneva, Calvin's co-laborer in the Reformation, made so favorable an impression upon the court by his eloquence, fearlessness and noble demeanor that the queen-regent requested him to remain in France, in the hope that his presence might contribute to peace and a better understanding between the two parties which divided the kingdom.

The Catholics of France bitterly resisted the concessions to the Huguenots, who were so elated by their success that they were led into some serious errors. Wherever the Huguenots found themselves in the majority they forcibly took possession of the churches, and profaned the altars and destroyed the images of the Virgin and the saints. The Catholic leaders took advantage of these Protestant outrages to excite the alarm of their party, and serious disturbances broke out in different parts of the kingdom.

In January, 1562, an *Edict of Toleration*, prepared by the Presidents and Councilors of the Parliaments of France, officially recognized the Calvinistic Church and permitted the Huguenots to congregate unarmed by daylight for worship in the suburbs of towns, though not within the walls. The queen mother, Catharine de Medici, in granting this Edict of Toleration, was supported by the Prince of Condé, the Châtillons, and the Chancellor Michel de l'Hopital. The Huguenots were, however, required to restore the church property which they had seized, and to desist from preaching against Roman Catholicism.

The gulf between the Catholics and the Huguenots was too deep to be closed so easily. The Catholic leaders, particularly the Guises, whose zeal for the Romish Church was stimulated by their ambition, prepared for an appeal to arms, and were satisfied with nothing less than the complete submis-

sion of the Huguenot party. The Triumvirate therefore resolved to forcibly oppose the Edict of Toleration.

Philip II. of Spain wrote to his mother-in-law, Catharine de Medici, that she must purify France with fire and sword, or the pestilence of heresy would overspread Spain and the Netherlands. The weak-minded King of Navarre was won over to the Catholic side by promises of the island of Sardinia or of a marriage with the young widowed Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots.

Francis, Duke of Guise, who had retired into Lorraine and was collecting troops, was so greatly alarmed by the Edict of Toleration that he resolved to return to Paris, where his presence was impatiently awaited by the Catholic party. He therefore started for Paris at the head of two hundred cavalry.

On a Sunday morning the Duke of Guise halted at the village of Vassy, in the county of Champagne, one of the possessions of the Guise family. A congregation of Huguenots were then assembled for religious worship in a large barn near the village, and the Duke of Guise marched his attendants to the barn to break up the meeting. The Huguenots were unarmed, and endeavored to close the doors of the barn; but the duke's men broke open the doors and rushed in. The intruders were received with a volley of stones, one of which struck the duke on the cheek. He instantly ordered his men to exterminate the heretics, and his command was obeyed to the letter. More than two hundred and fifty of the Huguenots were killed and wounded, and the entire congregation would have suffered such a fate had not the Duchess of Guise implored her husband to stop the massacre.

The Duke of Guise then proceeded to Paris, where he was welcomed with enthusiasm as the champion of the Catholic religion in France. The queen mother, Catharine de Medici, foreseeing the consequences of the massacre at Vassy, and unwilling to become again subject to the power of the Guises, made an effort to escape with her son, King Charles IX., from Paris; but she was overtaken by the Duke of Guise with an armed force at Fontainebleau, and was compelled to return with the boy king to the Louvre. Thenceforth Francis, Duke of Guise, was the real master of France as long as he lived.

The massacre at Vassy was the signal for a furious civil and religious war; and for the next thirty-six years (A. D. 1562–1598), with various periods of intermission, France was deluged with the blood of her own people. Other dreadful massacres in various parts of France followed that of Vassy. So many were slaughtered at Tours that the banks of the Loire were covered with corpses for some distance.

Theodore Beza hastened to the court to remonstrate. The King of Navarre, who was present, held the Huguenots wholly responsible. Beza replied in these memorable words: "I admit, Sire, that it is the part of God's Church, in whose name I speak, to endure rather than inflict blows; but may it please you to remember that it is an anvil which has worn out many a hammer."

Both parties sought foreign aid in the civil war which ensued. The Prince of Condé and the Huguenots wore the colors of King Charles IX., and announced their design to deliver him from the power of the Guises; but the Triumvirate and their partisans wore the red scarf of Spain. King Philip II. offered thirty-six thousand Spanish troops; but the Catholic leaders besought money instead, as they feared the scandal which a Spanish invasion would bring upon their cause. The Duke of Savoy led his own troops to the aid of the French Roman Catholics, and Pope Pius IV. contributed one hundred thousand crowns to the cause of that party. Queen Elizabeth of England contributed an equal sum of money to hire German mercenaries for the Huguenots, and sent six thousand English troops to join the Huguenot armies. The Huguenots gave up Havre to her officers as security for the restitution of Calais.

Many of the principal towns of France declared for the Huguenots. Orleans be-

came their capital and was blockaded by the armies of the Catholic party. The King of Navarre was mortally wounded at the siege of Rouen. In the battle of Dreux—the first conflict of any magnitude in this series of bloody civil-religious wars—the Prince of Condé and the Constable Montmorenci, the respective leaders of the Huguenot and Catholic armies, were both taken prisoners.

Admiral Coligni then became the leader of the Huguenots; while Francis, Duke of Guise, remained as the sole head of the Catholic party, and even dreamed of becoming the successor of Charles IX. on the throne of France; but his ambitious schemes were cut short by his assassination by a Protestant, who shot him from behind during the siege of Orleans, February, 1563. With his dying breath, the Duke of Guise advised the queen mother, Catharine de Medici, to make peace with the Huguenots.

The queen mother was the one who gained most by the assassination of the Duke of Guise, as her real administration of the regency then commenced. The first religious war in France was closed by the Peace of Amboise, in March, 1563, by which the nobles and great vassals of the French crown, with their retainers and subjects, secured religious toleration. This was a mere hollow truce, as we shall presently see. The Catholic party accused Admiral Coligni of instigating the assassination of the Duke of Guise, but Coligni denied the charge.

Admiral Coligni had promoted maritime enterprise and colonization in America; and the first settlements within the limits of the present United States had been made under his auspices, though these settlements had a very transient existence. In 1562 a colony of Huguenots under Jean Ribault settled at Port Royal, and built Fort Carolina, so named after King Charles IX.; but the settlement was soon abandoned. In 1564 another Huguenot colony under Laudonniere settled on the St. John's River, in Florida, where they erected a second Fort Carolina. Pedro Melendez de Avilez, a cruel Spaniard, commissioned for the purpose by King Philip II., massacred these Huguenot settlers, "Not as Frenchmen, but as heretics." Dominic de Gourgues, a fiery Gascon Huguenot soldier, fitted out an expedition, sailed to Florida, surprised the Spanish forts near the ruins of Fort Carolina in 1568, and hanged the garrisons on trees, placing over them the inscription: "Not as Spaniards and mariners, but as traitors, robbers and murderers."

As King Charles IX. had reached his fourteenth year in 1564 he was declared to have attained his majority, and he nominally assumed the government of France, but relinquished all real power to his mother, Catharine de Medici. He passed all of the year 1564 in visiting the various parts of the kingdom with her. While at Bayonne she was visited by her daughter Elizabeth, the wife of King Philip II. of Spain, attended by the Duke of Alva, Philip's confidential Minister. Many secret conferences were held between Catharine de Medici and the Duke of Alva, believed to have had reference to the speedy extinction of heresy in France and the Netherlands.

These conferences were known to the Huguenot leaders; and when the Duke of Alva began his persecutions in the Netherlands, in 1567, the Huguenots believed that their own doom had been decided upon by the French court. They therefore attempted to get the young king into their power, thus bringing on the second religious war in France, A. D. 1567. The Huguenots were defeated in the battle of St. Denis, near Paris, by the Catholics under the Constable Montmorenci, who was killed in the moment of victory, November, 1567.

No new Constable was appointed; but Catharine de Medici appointed her favorite son, the Duke of Anjou, Lieutenant-General of the kingdom; that office having been made vacant by the death of Antoine de Bourbon, King of Navarre, at the siege of Rouen, in 1562. Catharine, however, retained the control of the royal armies in her own hands.

The second civil and religious war in France was ended by the "Lame Peace,"

in 1568; but hostilities broke out a third time in 1569, and raged with greater fury than before. The Huguenots were defeated at Jarnac, March 13, 1569; their leader, the Prince of Condé, being wounded and taken prisoner, and assassinated after his surrender. The death of this able leader was a great loss to the Huguenots. His son Henry, who was then very young, afterward became one of the greatest of the Huguenot generals.

After the assassination of the Prince of Condé the Huguenots promptly recognized young King Henry of Navarre, the son and successor of Antoine de Bourbon, as their leader; but the veteran Admiral Coligni retained the command of the Huguenot armies. The Huguenots suffered a more severe and decisive defeat at Moncontour, October 3, 1569, losing twelve thousand men; but their arms were generally successful in 1570, and the Catholics were depressed in turn. Catharine de Medici was now weary of the war; and her interests required peace, as she hoped to marry her third and favorite son, Henry, Duke of Anjou, to Queen Elizabeth of England; while the skillful generalship of Admiral Coligni menaced Paris.

The third civil and religious war was ended by the Peace of St. Germain, August 8, 1570, by which the Huguenots were granted full toleration for their worship throughout France, except in Paris, and equal civil and political rights with the Catholics. As a guarantee for the faithful execution of the treaty, the Huguenots were allowed to garrison four cities—La Rochelle, Montauban, Cognac and La Charité—with their troops for two years. Catharine de Medici granted these terms very reluctantly, and they were wrung from her by the Huguenot successes. The Catholic party in France was bitterly hostile to the treaty, and King Philip II. of Spain and Pope Pius V. remonstrated strongly against it as humiliating to the Romish Church.

Catharine de Medici merely wanted a respite from the civil war to enable her to re-establish the royal authority in France, which had been seriously impaired by the long religious strife. She wished to strike a crushing blow at the Huguenots sooner or later, which she hoped would utterly destroy them. But for the time she executed the terms of the Peace of St. Germain in good faith, and for two years she showed so much favor to the Huguenots that Pope Pius V. began to regard her as an apostate from the Roman Catholic faith.

The death of Elizabeth, the queen of Philip II. of Spain, for a time dissolved the friendly relations between her husband and her brother, young King Charles IX. of France. The revolt of the Netherlands against the tyrannical and persecuting policy of Philip II. also tempted Charles IX. to annex the four Walloon provinces of the Netherlands to the Kingdom of France, of which they had formerly been fiefs, and thus extend the French frontier on the north to the Scheldt. Though this secret scheme never brought on any open hostilities between France and Spain, Charles IX. gave his security to a loan negotiated by Admiral Coligni and Count Louis of Nassau, the brother of Prince William of Orange, for the rebels of the Netherlands.

The Peace of St. Germain gave France a respite from the horrors of civil and religious strife for nearly two years, and the Huguenots were lulled into a delusive feeling of security by the conduct of Catharine de Medici and her son, King Charles IX. La Rochelle was the Huguenot stronghold and capital, where Queen Jeanne d'Albret of Navarre, the widow of Antoine de Bourbon, held her court and the Calvinistic Church of France its synods, undisturbed by the Guises or by the young King of France and his mother.

To throw the Huguenots still further off their guard, Catharine de Medici now proposed that, in order to cement the new bonds of good feeling between the religious parties in France, her daughter, Margaret of Valois, should marry Prince Henry of Bearn, the young King of Navarre, the son of Antoine de Bourbon and his queen, Jeanne

d'Albret, and the recognized leader of the Huguenot party. Jeanne, who was a woman of good sense, and who had reared her son in the Calvinistic faith, received Catharine's proposal with distrust; but Admiral Coligni and some of the other Huguenot leaders won her over to the scheme, though they did not have much faith in the queen mother's professed friendship for their party. They believed that the proposed marriage might be a benefit to France.

After the consent of all parties had been obtained there remained only one obstacle in the way of the proposed royal marriage. Young King Henry of Navarre was a Protestant, and the Princess Margaret was a Catholic. No Roman Catholic priest could celebrate a marriage between such a couple without a special dispensation from the Pope, and when Pius V. was applied to for such a dispensation he refused it.

King Charles IX. was very anxious for the marriage, and declared that if Pope Pius V. would not consent to the match he would have his sister married by a Huguenot preacher in "open conventicle." A dispensation was then procured. Vauvilliers, in his *Histoire de Jeanne D'Albret*, says that Catharine de Medici forged it. But the marriage was unpopular, and the Catholic party in France fomented the discontent which it aroused to the highest degree.

In the meantime Admiral Coligni had overcome his feeling of distrust and gone to court, and he was received with marked favor by King Charles IX. at Blois. Coligni's noble character won the young king's esteem; and the admiral was loaded with honors, wealth, and tokens of the king's affectionate confidence. Coligni used the power thus conferred upon him by seeking to unite all sects and parties in France against the arrogant influence of King Philip II. of Spain. Several months afterward Jeanne d'Albret, the Queen of Navarre, followed Coligni's example by going to the French court.

Coligni's influence over Charles IX. alarmed the young king's mother, who resolved upon the speedy destruction of the great Huguenot leader. She therefore cordially united with the Guises, who did their utmost to inflame the animosity of the Catholics toward the Huguenots. The leading men of the Huguenot party were invited to Paris to participate in the marriage festivities, in order that they might be within reach of the vengeance of Catharine de Medici and her accomplices in the conspiracy. The court courteously received and handsomely entertained these Huguenot leaders.

Shortly before the time appointed for the marriage of young King Henry of Navarre with the Princess Margaret, his mother, Queen Jeanne d'Albret, died at Paris, July 9, 1572, believed to have been poisoned by order of Catharine de Medici. The Catholic historian Davila says that she was poisoned, and that she was exempted from the wholesale massacre which followed because she was of royal blood. Many Huguenots took warning from her death, and fled from Paris. Coligni was urged by his friends to leave Paris in time, but he had full confidence in the king's word.

Early in the summer of 1572 King Charles IX. sent a military force into the county of Flanders to aid the patriots of that Netherland province in their revolt against Philip II. of Spain. This French force achieved some successes at first, but finally sustained a reverse; whereupon it became necessary to decide upon the future policy of France with respect to the struggle in the Netherlands. Admiral Coligni and the Huguenot party were in favor of an immediate declaration of war against Spain; but Catharine de Medici and the Guises opposed such a course, and this made the queen mother the more determined upon the execution of her plan.

Catharine de Medici's principal confidants in her atrocious plot were her son Henry, afterward King Henry III. of France, Duke Henry of Guise, Marshal de Tavannes, the Count de Retz and the Duke of Nevers. These conspirators deliberately planned and executed the atrocious massacres which

followed. The Catholic priests cordially assisted in the plot by preparing their followers for the bloody task assigned to them.

Young King Henry of Navarre and the Princess Margaret of Valois were married at Paris by the Cardinal de Bourbon, August 18, 1572. The Catholic party of France were intensely exasperated by this royal marriage, and Paris began to be pervaded with ominous rumors. The French court abandoned itself to feasting and revelry, but the queen mother and her confederates were diligently preparing for the execution of their diabolical plot. The governor of Lyons received orders not to let the messenger who conveyed the tidings of the royal marriage proceed on his way to Rome until after August 24, St. Bartholomew's Day.

The conspirators struck their first blow August 22, 1572, when the venerable Admiral Coligni was shot in the street and severely wounded by an assassin hired by Henry, Duke of Guise. King Charles IX. and his wicked mother visited the wounded Coligni in his bed-room, expressing great indignation at the attempt on his life, and declaring their determination to bring the assassin and his instigators to justice. Coligni warned the young king of the pernicious effects of his mother's misgovernment, implored him to deprive her of power, and offered to support him in such a course with the entire force of the Huguenots.

The young king went away very much affected by Coligni's words, and the conspirators were greatly alarmed. If Charles IX. remained faithful to Coligni they were lost, and they had gone too far to turn back. The masses, whose fanaticism they had inflamed to the highest degree, could not be restrained from violence; and the conspirators therefore determined to carry out their plot to its conclusion. They passed the day after his visit to Coligni in endeavoring to win the king over to the support of their fiendish plot. They excited the weak-minded king's alarm and wrath with rumors of Huguenot plots against him, and urged him to consent to the assassination of Admiral Coligni and the other Protestant leaders of France.

The young king, wrought up to the wildest fury by these accounts, declared that, as it was necessary to assassinate Coligni, not one Huguenot should escape with his life. The conspirators took Charles IX. at his word. It was agreed that Admiral Coligni should be the first to be murdered, and that his assassination should be followed by a general massacre of the Huguenots in Paris. The public arms in the royal arsenals were distributed among the Roman Catholic citizens, who were to wear white scarfs around their left arms and white crosses on their hats to distinguish them from the Huguenots. The detachments from the suburbs were called in to reinforce the royal guards. During the whole of August 23d the Catholic leaders were assiduously engaged in posting their forces and in preparing the citizens of Paris to make common cause with them in the bloody task to be executed.

Between three and four o'clock in the morning of August 24, 1572—St. Bartholomew's Day—Henry, Duke of Guise, attacked the house of Admiral Coligni, who was murdered in his bed by one of the duke's men. As soon as Catharine de Medici was informed of the great Huguenot leader's assassination she ordered the priests of the Church of St. Germain l' Auxerrois to ring their bell as the signal agreed upon for the massacre to begin. Instantly every church bell in the city rang the call for the Catholics to begin their horrible task of slaughter.

Paris, which had before been so silent and peaceful, instantly became a prey to confusion and strife. Lights gleamed from all houses; multitudes of armed men filled the streets; and instantly, as if myriads of wild beasts had been let loose, the city resounded with the demoniac yells of the murderers and the despairing cries of the victims. The Huguenots had been marked; and, as they were utterly taken by surprise, they were unable to defend themselves. Catharine de Medici and her attendants viewed the massacre from the palace windows, from which

her son, King Charles IX., himself shot at some of the poor victims in the streets. The Prince of Condé and King Henry of Navarre narrowly escaped assassination, but their attendants were massacred in the courtyard of the Louvre.

The slaughter went on in Paris for eight days and nights, sparing neither age, sex nor condition, and spread throughout France in six weeks. The king's orders for the extension of the massacre to other parts of France had been well obeyed, and the same bloody scenes which had made the capital a field of slaughter were enacted in many other towns of France—at Rouen, Orleans, Bourges, Troyes, Lyons, Toulouse and Bordeaux. Some of the Catholic commanders, however, refused to obey the king's orders; and one of them wrote to the court that he commanded soldiers, not assassins.

Such was the dreadful *Massacre of St. Bartholomew*, whose number of victims is variously estimated by different writers at from ten thousand to one hundred thousand. The estimate of the Duke of Sully was seventy thousand; that of De Thou was thirty thousand.

No sooner had the massacre ceased than Catharine de Medici and her accomplices in the conspiracy discovered that they had committed a terrible political blunder, as the consequences were quite different from what the French court had expected. Many Roman Catholics renounced their religion and became Huguenots from a feeling of horror and shame.

Catharine de Medici and her fellow-conspirators endeavored to throw the responsibility for the massacre upon Duke Henry of Guise, but that nobleman refused to bear such blame; and they finally persuaded young King Charles IX. to declare before the Parliament of Paris that he was responsible for the massacre, that it was a political and not a religious act, and that it was necessary in order to suppress a dangerous Huguenot conspiracy, so that it was done in self-defense. Salviati, the Papal Nuncio at Paris, pronounced this declaration "false in every respect."

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew occasioned surprise in other countries of Europe, but excited very different feelings at the various courts. Upon receiving Catharine de Medici's letter informing him of the massacre, the bigoted Philip II. of Spain is said to have laughed for the only time in his life. His cousin, the good Emperor Maximilian II. of Germany, though a true Catholic, wept at the horrid crime. Queen Elizabeth of England received the French ambassador in a hall draped with funeral black, and without a word being spoken; so that the discomfited envoy, after having advanced through silent rows of black-robed figures, was obliged to depart as he came, without being permitted to offer his explanations. Pope Gregory XIII. celebrated the massacre as a Catholic victory, by the firing of a triumphal salute from the Castle of St. Angelo, a brilliant illumination of Rome, and a *Te Deum* in the Cathedral of St. Peter's, in which the Pope and the cardinals assisted, the Pope offering thanks to God for "this signal mercy." Gregory XIII. ordered a medal to be struck commemorating the event, and caused the Hall of Kings in the Vatican to be adorned with a fresco representing the massacre. At Geneva, St. Bartholomew's Day was appointed to be annually observed as a solemn fast.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew led to a renewal of hostilities, and the fourth civil-religious war burst forth with a fury surpassing the three previous struggles. The Huguenot outbreak was directed by the Prince of Condé, who had succeeded in making his escape from court. The royal army engaged in an unsuccessful siege of La Rochelle, the Huguenot stronghold. A treaty of peace, in July, 1573, allowed freedom of conscience and worship to the Huguenots in La Rochelle, Montauban and Nismes.

Charles IX. at one time endeavored to put the whole responsibility for the great crime on the Guises; and the next moment he confessed the part he had taken, and expressed joy at what he considered a blow at heresy; but, from the time of the massacre,

he was troubled with remorse and grief at his participation in the horrible crime. He frequently imagined that he saw the bloody forms of the massacred Protestants before his eyes; he had no rest night or day; and he was often known to sigh and to bemoan himself with tears. His health rapidly declined, and his miserable life was terminated at the age of twenty-three, May 30, 1574.

Charles IX. was succeeded as King of France by his next brother, HENRY III., who had been elected King of Poland the preceding year, 1573; and the queen mother, Catharine de Medici, acted as regent until her son's return from Poland. As Henry had left refined Paris for barbarous Poland with the utmost reluctance, he now returned to the French capital to take possession of his native, hereditary and more delightful kingdom with the greatest satisfaction. He left Poland like a common thief, taking the Polish crown jewels with him, and was pursued sixty miles on horseback by many of the Polish nobles, who desired to secure their country from the anarchy which was sure to follow so sudden an abdication. As he passed through Italy the Duke of Savoy induced him to surrender Pignerol and the other fortresses which the French possessed in Piedmont.

Henry III. was more contemptible and licentious than any of his brothers and predecessors, and did not possess the energy and talents requisite for the government of distracted France. At the beginning of his reign he announced his determination to make no concessions to the Huguenots, but he took no vigorous measures against them.

Henry III. married Louise de Vaudemont, a member of the Guise family—a marriage which augmented the power of the Guises, which was already too great for the security of the French crown. Duke Henry of Guise, the son and successor of Duke Francis, was now the head of that powerful family of Lorraine. Henry of Guise was brave, talented and popular, though on the whole he was inferior to his father. He had pretensions to the French crown in case Henry III. died without heirs, as that king was the last representative of the Valois dynasty. King Henry of Navarre, as the head of the Bourbon family, was the rightful heir to the French crown; but, as he was a Protestant, Duke Henry of Guise intended to contest his claim, basing his own pretensions on his descent from Charlemagne through Charles of Lorraine, the last of the Carlovingian dynasty.

In spite of the efforts of the French court, the Huguenots had been strengthened by the events of 1573. The middle party, composed of just and moderate Catholics, under the leadership of the Montmorencies, were shocked by the crimes of the Guises and alarmed by the foreign alliances of that powerful and ambitious family.

The consolidated monarchy which Louis XI. had built up so cautiously in France a century before seemed about to be dissolved into its feudal elements. La Rochelle, Montauban and Nismes—the Huguenot strongholds—were like independent republics. The provinces of Languedoc, Guienne, Poitou, and others in the Southwest of France, united themselves in a league, which raised taxes, administered justice and directed military operations like a sovereign state. In every part of France, governors of provinces, and even commandants of towns and castles, acted independently of the French crown.

The points now in dispute were more political than religious, as most of the original Huguenot leaders were dead, exiled or apostate. Even King Henry of Navarre and the Prince of Condé reconciled themselves with the Roman Catholic Church the year after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, though insincerely.

The Duke of Alençon, the only surviving brother of King Henry III., now declared himself the protector of the Huguenots, and joined their army in the country of Poitou. The Prince-Palatine, John Casimir, who was also their ally, marched into France with an army of eighteen thousand men for their assistance.

La paix de Monsieur, "the Peace of Mon-

sieur,"—so called in honor of the conventional title of the king's eldest brother—was concluded in May, 1576, and was the most favorable treaty that the Huguenots had yet obtained from the French court, as it granted perfect religious freedom throughout France, except at Paris and in the immediate precincts of the court, wherever it might be.

By this treaty the Duke of Alençon received the provinces of Anjou, Touraine and Berry in full sovereignty; and he thenceforth bore the title of Duke of Anjou. After thus gaining all that he expected from his alliance with the Hueguenots he deserted them, and afterward commanded an army against them. The treaty restored the duchy of Guienne to King Henry of Navarre, and assigned the county of Picardy to the Prince of Condé, while also reinstating all the Huguenot leaders in their offices and pensions.

The Catholics regarded the treaty as humiliating to France and to the Romish Church; and their discontent led to the formation of the *Catholic League* by the Catholic nobles of France, headed by Duke Henry of Guise. All the members of the Catholic League signed a formula promising "unlimited obedience to its head without respect of persons" and without reservation of the royal supremacy.

Though the Catholic League was organized nominally to maintain the royal authority in France, its real aim was to establish the power of Duke Henry of Guise more firmly. The treasonable nature of the league only became apparent afterward when it placed itself under the protection of a foreign sovereign, Philip II. of Spain.

But a plot was already formed at Rome to seize and arraign the Duke of Anjou, exterminate the Huguenots, confine the incompetent King Henry III. in prison like the *Rois Fainéants* of the Merovingian dynasty, and place Duke Henry of Guise himself upon the French throne as a descendant of Charlemagne. This plot was discovered among the papers of a lawyer named David, who died at Lyons while returning to Rome; but it was regarded as a malicious fabrication of the Huguenots until the French ambassador in Spain forwarded to France another copy, which he had obtained from King Philip II.

King Henry III. was so alarmed by this evidence of the real designs of the Catholic League that he knew of no better way to avert its enmity than to place himself at its head. The States-General were already summoned to assemble at Blois early in the winter of 1577.

The manifesto of the Catholic League was laid before the States-General, after being cleared of all expressions which seemed to limit or contest the royal prerogative. Some of the deputies signed it, but others refused. All were offended by the undignified position in which King Henry III. had placed himself by his cowardice, and refused to vote supplies to continue the war. The terms of the "Peace of Monsieur" were really too favorable to the Huguenots to have been sincerely guaranteed by the French court; and the Huguenots had been extending their conquests in the South-west of France, even while the States-General were in session.

In September, 1577, the Peace of Bergerac closed the fifth civil-religious war in France, greatly curtailing the religious privileges granted to the Huguenots. Notwithstanding the perils which still menaced his throne, King Henry III. gave himself up more completely than ever before to base and frivolous amusements. The orgies of his court were only paralleled by that of the Roman Emperors in their deepest degradation. Luxury and violence held unbridled sway, and murders were almost of daily occurrence. The hostility of the Guises rendered it necessary for the king to remain at peace with the Huguenots.

In the summer of 1578 Catharine de Medici, in company with her daughter, Queen Margaret of Navarre, and a "flying squadron" of court-beauties, visited Margaret's husband, King Henry of Navarre, in his capital, and passed more than a year in the South of France, employing all her Italian arts to pacify and conciliate the Hu-

guenots. The Peace of Nérac, in February, 1579, secretly granted greater favors to the Huguenots than had been allowed them by that of Bergerac, and closed the sixth civil-religious war in France.

In the spring of 1580 the seventh war of religion broke out, called the *War of the Lovers*, on account of its whimsical origin. It was closed by the mediation of the Duke of Anjou, who was anxious to assume the protectorate of the Netherlands, which the insurgents of those states offered him; while the French court found cause for a rupture with Philip II. of Spain in the sudden and alarming increase of his power by the conquest of Portugal.

In 1581 the Duke of Anjou, with the consent of his brother, King Henry III., led a French army into the Netherlands to assist the Flemish patriots in their revolt against Philip II. of Spain. He captured Cambray from Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma. The Duke of Anjou was a suitor for the hand of Queen Elizabeth of England, whose alliance was of the greatest importance to the revolted Netherlands. He was cordially welcomed by the Flemings, and was proclaimed Duke of Brabant and Count of Flanders. But when Queen Elizabeth refused to marry him his popularity suddenly vanished. He soon afterward attempted to make himself absolute master of Flanders, and was driven back into France by the indignant Flemings. He died of disease and disappointment in June, 1584.

In retaliation for the interference of the French court in Spanish affairs, Philip II. entered into a closer alliance with the Guises, who, in his interest, had watched and endeavored to thwart the French expedition sent to the Azores in the interest of Dom Antonio. When this failed, the King of Spain tried the other party, and repeatedly offered money to King Henry of Navarre to renew hostilities against King Henry III. of France. The King of Navarre rejected the Spanish king's overtures; and the death of the Duke of Anjou, in June, 1584, had the effect of drawing closer the relations between the two King Henries; for Henry of Navarre, as the head of the House of Bourbon, now became the heir presumptive to the French throne.

The death of the Duke of Anjou also encouraged the aspirations of Duke Henry of Guise, and caused a renewal of the Catholic League under the protection of Philip II. of Spain. The chiefs of the league and the envoys of the King of Spain signed a formal treaty at Paris in December, 1584, some of the prominent articles of which were the "extirpation of all Protestant and heretical sects in the Netherlands, as well as in France, and the exclusion of heretical princes from the throne."

Philip II. promised the league a subsidy of fifty thousand crowns a month. Pope Gregory XIII. sustained the treaty; and a manifesto was issued in the name of the Cardinal de Bourbon, a very weak man, whom Duke Henry of Guise supported as the legitimate heir to the French crown, in order to conceal his own designs. This manifesto also declared the object of the Catholic League to be the defense of the Catholic religion.

King Henry III., alarmed by the movements of the Catholic League, but not daring to break with Philip II. of Spain, refused the petition of the states of the Netherlands which besought his protection in their revolt against the Spanish king; and by the *Edict of Nemours* he acceded to all the demands of the Catholic League. Henry III. revoked all previous edicts of toleration, and warned all Huguenots to leave France within six months. Thus Henry III. was forced to become the ally of the very men who were seeking to destroy his throne.

Pope Sixtus V., upon his accession, in 1585, formally excommunicated King Henry of Navarre; and during that year the Huguenots took up arms in self-defense, under the leadership of King Henry of Navarre, the Prince of Condé and the Duke of Montmorenci, against the forces of the Catholic League under Duke Henry of Guise and King Henry III. This was the eighth of this series of civil and religious wars, and was called the *War of the Three Henries.*

Though nominally an ally of the Catholic League, King Henry III. at heart wished for its defeat, because its success meant his ruin. Early in 1587 a plot for the king's dethronement was detected in Paris. But the power of Duke Henry of Guise was so great that the weak king dared not take any action against him. The shallowness of the king's character became more apparent than ever before. While his kingdom was distracted with these fierce dissensions he amused himself with his dogs, monkeys and parrots, or in foolish and fantastic entertainments which drained his already exhausted treasury.

In the meantime King Henry of Navarre gained a great victory over the royal army at Coutras; but, as he neglected to follow up his success, a large German army under John Casimir, the Prince-Palatine, sent into France to assist the Huguenots, was surprised and defeated with heavy loss by Duke Henry of Guise in Anneau. The exasperated peasantry came to the assistance of the Duke of Guise in harassing the retreat of the Germans and massacring all whom they took prisoners.

King Henry III. had forbidden the leaders of the Catholic League to enter Paris. But Duke Henry of Guise came in spite of the king's orders, and was received with shouts of welcome by the Parisian populace, whose idol he had ever been. The king, pale with rage and terror, asked the duke why he had disobeyed his express orders; and the duke replied that he had come to defend himself against the accusations of his enemies.

Paris was now divided into two hostile camps, and the Hotel de Guise was guarded by the mob as constantly as the Louvre was by the king's troops. The strength of Duke Henry of Guise was so evident that King Henry III. ordered several thousand of his Swiss mercenaries to enter the city. This occasioned a general popular outbreak in Paris, known as the *Day of the Barricades*, which was incited by the Catholic League. The king fled in terror to Chartres; and the Duke of Guise assumed the powers of dictator, overawed the Parliament of Paris, filled all civil and military offices with his own partisans, and seized and fortified the towns in the vicinity of Paris to prevent surprise. The triumphant Guise party established a revolutionary government in Paris under a *Council of Sixteen*, which held the city for six years.

Duke Henry of Guise was not yet prepared to raise the standard of open rebellion, and commenced negotiating with King Henry III. After some hesitation, the king was forced to sign an *Edict of Union*, at Rouen, in July, 1588, granting all the demands of the Catholic League, one of which was a convocation of the States-General, which the Duke of Guise intended should legalize his usurpation of power and place the king under his control. The Duke of Guise became Lieutenant-General, and Henry III. was left as king only in name.

Henry III. had been forced to accept the humiliating conditions of the Catholic League by the stern necessities of the moment; but he had fully made up his mind to rid himself of the Guises, and he accordingly resolved upon their assassination. He invited Duke Henry of Guise to a consultation in the royal bed-chamber in the Castle of Blois, December 23, 1588; and the duke was assassinated by the royal guards as he was passing through the antechamber. The king brutally kicked the corpse of his murdered rival; after which he descended the stairs to the apartment below, where his aged mother, Catharine de Medici, lay dying, and saluted her with the words: "Now, Madam, I am once more King of France, for I have put to death the King of Paris." Louis of Guise, the Cardinal of Lorraine, was arrested and privately murdered in prison on Christmas day, 1588, two day's after his brother's assassination. Catharine de Medici died universally execrated, January 5, 1589.

The news of the assassination of the Guises threw Paris into an uproar. The Sorbonne—the great ecclesiastical authority of France—declared the French people released from their allegiance to King Henry

III. The Parliament of Paris attempted to quiet the tumult, whereupon its members were imprisoned in the Bastile, and were only released when they confirmed the decision of the Sorbonne and promised to be the subservient instruments of the Council of Sixteen. After being purged of its refractory members, the Parliament appointed the Duke of Mayenne, a brother of the murdered Guises, Lieutenant-General of the kingdom; and the Duke of Aumale, another brother, was made commander of Paris.

Between the Huguenots in the South of France and the Catholic League in the North, the wretched King Henry III. had only six towns on the Loire. He was in a desperate situation; as the Catholic League announced its intention to drive him from the throne of France; while Pope Sixtus V. summoned him to appear at Rome to answer for the murder of Louis of Guise, Cardinal of Lorraine, a prince of the Church.

Henry III. was dismayed by the power arrayed against him; and, as the Catholic League refused to come to terms with him, he was obliged to throw himself without reserve into the arms of the Huguenots and to seek the alliance of King Henry of Navarre. After a personal conference at Plessis-les-Tours, in April, 1589, the two King Henries joined their forces and laid siege to Paris with the intention of reducing the rebellious city to a heap of ruins.

This powerful combination of the Kings of France and Navarre was in a fair way to crush the Catholic League, and the leaders of the league clearly perceived the danger which menaced them. Paris was weakly garrisoned; and it was well known that upon the fall of the city, which was inevitable if the siege was vigorously prosecuted, King Henry III. would severely punish the citizens of the capital for their rebellion and for their many insults to him.

Terror increased the fanatical rage of the Parisians. Their priests and the leaders of the Catholic League, and the Duchess of Montpensier particularly, the sister of the murdered Guises, openly declared that the assassination of one or both of the King Henries was indispensable to save France and the Catholic religion. In this condition of sentiment an assassin was finally found in the person of Jacques Clement, an ignorant Dominican monk, who was made to believe that the murder of the King of France would commend the assassin to the favor of Heaven and insure him eternal happiness in the next life.

It was known that the combined armies of the two King Henries had ordered an assault to be made on Paris on August 2, 1589; and Clement was hurried forward to his bloody task and prepared for it by the administration of the sacrament. He entered the camp of King Henry III. on August 1, 1589, obtained an audience with the king and stabbed him in the stomach. The assassin was instantly killed by the royal guards. Henry III. lingered until the next morning. Conscious that his end was at hand, he summoned his ally, King Henry of Navarre, to his bedside, acknowledged him as his successor on the throne of France, and induced the French nobles present to swear allegiance to him. Henry III. died between two and three o'clock on the morning of August 2, 1589. He was the last of the House of Valois, which had occupied the throne of France for two hundred and sixty-one years (A. D. 1328–1589), comprising the reigns of thirteen kings.

Thus the House of Bourbon ascended the throne of France in the person of King Henry of Navarre, who then became King HENRY IV. of France, uniting permanently the crowns of France and Navarre. Thenceforth the Bourbon dynasty wore the crown of France for a little over two centuries, until the great French Revolution.

Although Henry IV. was the legitimate heir to the French crown, he had considerable difficulty in obtaining the recognition of his claims by the leaders of the royal forces engaged in the siege of Paris. The Catholic nobles manifested a disinclination to acknowledge a heretic as King of France, notwithstanding the oath they had taken in the presence of the dying King Henry III.

They plainly told Henry IV. that he must become a Catholic in order to become King of France.

Henry IV. at first remonstrated with dignity against such treatment; but he finally consented to submit to the instruction of a national council, and to give all essential guarantees for the protection of the Roman Catholic religion in France. The Catholic nobles agreed to recognize his title to the French crown on those conditions; and on August 4, 1589, Henry IV., as King of France and Navarre, signed a solemn declaration by which he bound himself to maintain the Catholic faith and the property and rights of the Cathotic Church in France, to summon a lawful national council within six months and abide by its decisions, and to give the Catholics possession of all the fortresses and towns of France except those granted to the Huguenots by the last treaty.

The Duke d'Epernon arrogantly refused to recognize Henry IV. even on these terms, and withdrew his force of seven thousand men to the province of Saintonge. The Huguenots of the provinces of Poitou and Gascony, under the leadership of La Tremouille, Duke of Thouars, likewise withdrew from the army of Henry IV., because they considered the king's promise to the Catholics a betrayal of their cause.

Eight claimants appeared for the crown of France, the most powerful of whom was King Philip II. of Spain, whose second wife was the daughter of Henry II., and therefore the sister of Francis II., Charles IX. and Henry III. Henry IV. was poorer than any of his rivals, and did not have either money or troops enough to meet them on equal terms. His cause appeared hopeless. He was a heretic, had been the favorite leader of the French Protestants, and had been the ally of the king who had caused the assassination of Duke Henry of Guise.

The Duke of Mayenne was a weaker and less daring man than his brother, Henry of Guise, and did not venture to lay claim to the French crown as yet, but proclaimed the Cardinal de Bourbon, who was a prisoner at Tours, King of France with the title of Charles X., and assumed for himself the title of "Lieutenant-General of the State and Crown of France."

King Henry IV. was seriously discouraged by the obstacles in his way, and was only prevented from retiring into the South of France by the persuasions of his faithful friend, D'Aubigné, the famous historian of the Reformation. By thus remaining in the North of France, Henry IV. saved his French crown.

As Henry IV. found his army very much weakened, he raised the siege of Paris, August 8, 1589, and marched into the duchy of Normandy. The governor of Dieppe at once submitted to him and placed that town in the king's possession, thus giving him an important sea-port, whence he might have communication with Queen Elizabeth of England, who had promised him assistance.

Caen next espoused the cause of Henry IV.; and in September, 1589, he defeated a superior force under the Duke of Mayenne in several engagements at Arques. He soon felt the good effect of these early successes. His brilliant management and his good fortune inspired him with confidence, and in the course of a few months his forces had increased to twenty thousand men.

During the winter of 1589–'90 Henry IV. was recognized as King of France in the greater part of the provinces of Normandy, Brittany, Touraine, Poitou, Saintonge and Gascony; and he also had a strong following in the provinces of Dauphiny, Provence and Languedoc. All the Protestant sovereigns of Europe had recognized his title to the throne of France, and Pope Sixtus V. had expressed himself favorable to his claims.

Henry IV. finally broke the power of the Catholic League by his brilliant victory over the Duke of Mayenne in the battle of Ivry, January 11, 1590. The army of the Duke of Mayenne was twice as large as that of the king. When the battle began Henry IV. addressed his troops thus: "My friends, yonder is the enemy, here is your king; and God is on our side. If you lose your standards, rally round my white plume; you will

always find it in the path of honor and victory."

Henry IV. could have taken Paris had he been able to march on the city immediately after his glorious victory at Ivry, but his advance was delayed by the necessity of reducing several important posts on the way. He reached the vicinity of Paris in May, 1590, blockaded the city, and was in possession of all the suburbs by the end of July. He might have taken the city by storm, but he refused to sacrifice the lives of his subjects. Said he: "I am the true father of my people. I would rather never have Paris than possess it by the death and ruin of so many persons."

When the fall of Paris appeared inevitable the beleaguered capital was relieved by a Spanish army of fourteen thousand infantry under Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma, the greatest general of the time, who advanced from the Netherlands, completely outgeneraled King Henry IV., reinforced the garrison of Paris and supplied it with provisions, and forced King Henry IV. to raise the siege.

Greatly mortified by his failure in the siege of Paris, Henry IV. retreated to Compiègne in September, 1591. In the spring of 1592 he sought to force Alexander Farnese of Parma to a decisive battle; but the Spanish commander skillfully evaded the French king, and retreated into the Netherlands without the loss of a man or a cannon.

All parties in France were by this time tired of this indecisive and exhausting civil and religious war. King Henry IV., who already had been twice a Catholic and twice a Protestant, and who probably had no very deep convictions in favor of either faith, now resolved to bring peace to his distracted kingdom by sacrificing his religious convictions. He caused himself to be publicly "instructed" in the Roman Catholic faith; and on July 25, 1593, he abjured Protestantism and received the mass from the Archbishop of Bourges in the presence of a vast assemblage in the great Cathedral of St. Denis.

Henry IV. never made any pretensions to a religious life, and his change of belief was a matter of little consequence to him. In a political sense it was a state necessity and an act of the profoundest statesmanship; as it struck the death-blow to the Catholic League, and removed the last obstacle to the reconciliation of the two great religious and political parties which had so long distracted France with civil and religious strife.

As Rheims was in the possession of the Catholic League, Henry IV. was crowned at Chartres, in February, 1594. He was generally acknowledged throughout France; and he entered Paris on March 22, 1594, by bribing Brissac, the commandant of the garrison. The king lightly remarked· "So fair a city is well worth a mass!" The submission of the capital was followed by that of the provinces, and Henry IV. became undisputed King of France.

Henry IV. signalized his triumph by his liberal treatment of his former Catholic foes. He was generous and warm-hearted by nature and was incapable of retaining any resentment; and his conduct toward his recent enemies showed that he had not only forgiven, but also forgotten, their offenses toward him. Naturally such a king became universally popular among his subjects, who served him with a devotion almost without a parallel in history. Henry IV. had proved himself a great soldier, and he was now to show himself a great statesman.

After being firmly established on the throne of France, Henry IV. resolved to bring his quarrel with Philip II. of Spain to a decisive issue, especially after an attempt upon his life by an emissary of Philip II. and the Jesuits. He caused the Parliament of Paris to issue a decree for the expulsion of the Jesuits from France within fifteen days; and he declared war against Philip II. of Spain, January 17, 1595.

In the latter part of 1595 Pope Clement VIII. formally acknowledged Henry IV. as King of France; and early in 1596 the Dukes of Mayenne and Epernon submitted to the king, thus putting at end to the Catholic League.

The war with Philip II. of Spain obliged

Henry IV. to put forth all his energies. In the North of France the Spaniards captured Calais, Ardres and Amiens; but Henry IV. recovered Amiens, September 25, 1597. By the Peace of Vervins, in May, 1598, Philip II. relinquished all his conquests in France except the citadel of Cambray.

By the *Edict of Nantes*, which he signed in April, 1598, Henry IV. guaranteed to the Huguenots complete religious freedom and toleration, and secured to them equal civil and political rights with the Catholics. All civil and military offices were thrown open to the Huguenots, and special courts for their protection were instituted throughout the kingdom. They were also admitted to all colleges, schools and hospitals equally with the Catholics, and were permitted to publish religious books and found institutions of learning for their own exclusive patronage. They were granted the right to hold a general assembly once in three years, to deliberate upon matters pertaining to their welfare, and to petition the crown for a redress of grievances. The seventy-five towns which the Huguenots had obtained by the Peace of Bergerac, in 1577, were permanently secured to them by this famous edict. Among these towns were La Rochelle, Nismes, Montpellier and Grenoble.

By the Edict of Nantes, Henry IV. reassured his Huguenot subjects, who had been alarmed by his compulsory desertion of their party in 1593. The Catholic clergy, and the more zealous of the Catholic laity, bitterly denounced this memorable edict; but nevertheless it was registered by the Parliament of Paris, February 25, 1599, thus ending the long period of civil and religious strife.

As France was now free from civil and foreign war, Henry IV. was enabled to devote his energies to the task of arranging the internal affairs of the kingdom upon a secure basis. The finances were in a deplorable condition. The national debt exceeded three hundred million francs—a sum equivalent to about one hundred and sixty million dollars in United States money. The Farmers-General—the officials who collected this revenue—defrauded the government to such an extent that only thirty million francs reached the national treasury out of the two hundred million which the French people paid annually as taxes.

In 1598 Henry IV. assigned the management of the finances to Maximilian de Bethune, Baron de Rosny, whom he had created Duke of Sully. This Minister was one of the ablest statesmen that France ever produced, and was a man of the most sterling integrity. His vigorous measures soon redounded to the financial benefit of France. The frauds which had deprived the government of the greater part of its revenue were sternly checked, and the levying of arbitrary taxes was stopped, while unnecessary and expensive offices and titles were abolished. There was a reduction in taxation to twenty-six million francs per annum, twenty million of which were paid into the national treasury. The national debt was reduced almost one half, and a reserve fund of more than twenty-six million livres was accumulated.

Henry IV. gave a cordial and unswerving support to his great Minister, and the kingdom soon felt the good results of the new policy. The king and the Minister encouraged agriculture, commerce, manufactures and all branches of industry. Commercial treaties were negotiated with England, Holland, Spain and Turkey; and French colonies were planted in America, where De Monts founded Acadia, afterward Nova Scotia, in 1605, and where Samuel Champlain founded the city of Quebec in 1608. Marshes were drained; roads, bridges and canals were constructed; and measures were adopted for the preservation of the forests of France. Everything connected with the welfare and prosperity of the kingdom received the personal care and attention of Henry IV. and the Duke of Sully; and the unrivaled fame of the French for the production of fine and curious fabrics dates from this reign.

In his own dress and equipage, Henry IV. presented an example of moderation; and the French nobles were recommended

to live upon their estates, in order to avoid the extravagance and frivolous rivalries of a court.

At the close of the sixteenth century France was the greatest, wealthiest and most populous state of Europe; and Paris was the largest European capital, excepting Moscow.

Although Henry IV. was so successful in his public life, he was very unfortunate in his family affairs. The unmitigated vices of his wife, Margaret of Valois, had led to his separation from her many years previously; and, as he had no legitimate heir, he now seriously thought of procuring a divorce from his dissolute wife in order to marry his mistress, Gabrielle d'Estrées, with whom he had several children, and whom he had created Duchess of Beaufort. Many of the leading nobles of France favored the proposed marriage, but the Duke of Sully prevented it. The duchess unwisely demanded that the king should disgrace his great Minister, but Henry IV. bluntly replied that if it were necessary to part with either herself or the Duke of Sully he would stand by the Minister. This decisive blow to her hopes threw her into a violent illness which ended her life in April, 1599.

At the request of Henry IV., Pope Clement VIII. granted him a divorce from Margaret of Valois in December, 1599. The king now gave a written promise to his new mistress, the beautiful Henriette d'Entragues, whom he created Marchioness of Verneuil. When this paper was shown to the Duke of Sully the great Minister tore it to pieces, and exerted himself to find a suitable partner for the king. Henry IV. chose Mary de Medici, daughter of the late Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the marriage took place in October, 1600. The fruit of this marriage were several children, the eldest of whom was born September 27, 1601, and was the heir to his father's throne.

The Peace of Vervins in 1598 required the Duke of Savoy to cede the Marquisate of Saluces to France; but that prince retained that small territory in violation of the treaty, and in 1600 he proceeded to Paris to negotiate with King Henry IV. concerning it. The Duke of Savoy embraced the opportunity afforded by this visit to organize a conspiracy against the French king, and induced many of the old members of the Catholic League to join in the plot.

The most prominent conspirator was Marshal de Biron, the king's old comrade in arms, and whom Henry IV. had esteemed as his most devoted friend. But Biron was ambitious and exceedingly vain. As Charles Emmanuel, Duke of Savoy, was satisfied with his work he returned to his duchy and refused to surrender the territory required by treaty. He hoped that the plot which he had instigated in Paris, and which aimed at the dismemberment of the French kingdom into feudal states under the suzerainty of King Philip III. of Spain, was in a fair way to become successful; and he was also anxious for war.

Unconscious of the conspiracy at home, Henry IV. declared war against the Duke of Savoy, invaded his territory with an army in which Marshal de Biron held an important command, quickly overran the duchy of Savoy, and occupied Chamberry, its capital, August 21, 1600. Duke Charles Emmanuel was obliged to solicit peace, which he only obtained by surrendering the district of La Bresse, between Lyons and Geneva, in return for Saluces.

Upon his return to France, Henry IV. was informed of the conspiracy against him, and of Biron's share in the plot; and Biron, struck with dismay, made a full confession of his treason. The king generously pardoned him, and sent him on a diplomatic mission to England. But Biron failed to profit by the king's magnanimity, and renewed his treasonable designs and his intrigues with the enemies of France. His plots were discovered; and the king offered him an opportunity to confess his guilt, with the intention of granting him a pardon if he manifested any remorse; but Biron haughtily refused to acknowledge his treason, and was tried, convicted and sentenced by the Parliament of Paris, and be-

headed July 31, 1602. This measure was as wise as it was severe, as it put an end to the plots against Henry IV., and secured the internal tranquillity of France. Henry IV. devoted the three years of unbroken peace which ensued to the improvement of his kingdom.

By his recall of the Jesuits in 1603, and by his manifest desire to stand well with the Pope, Henry IV. alienated the Huguenots, whose leader, the Duke of Bouillon, even made overtures to King Philip III. of Spain. Thereupon that nobleman's capital, Sedan, was seized by the royal forces, which occupied it for four years; after which Henry IV. pardoned him and reinstated him in all his offices and honors, either through his natural leniency or through fear of offending the Protestant princes of Germany.

A favorite scheme of Henry IV. was the union of all the states of Christendom into a great Christian confederacy, in which the Lutheran, Calvinistic and Catholic faiths should be tolerated and stand upon a footing of perfect equality, all disputes to be settled by arbitration in a diet or federal council in which all the states of the league would be represented, while commerce was to be freed from the restrictions which then paralyzed enterprise in the southern countries of Europe. Each of the states comprising the league was to be guaranteed the free and full enjoyment of its own political institutions.

This great Christian confederation was to consist of fifteen states, classified in three groups—six elective monarchies, embracing the Germano-Roman Empire, the Papal States, Venice, Bohemia, Hungary, and Poland; six hereditary monarchies, comprising France, Spain, England with Scotland, Denmark with Norway, Sweden, and Savoy with Milan; and three federal republics, namely, the Dutch Republic, Switzerland, and a confederation of Italian republics consisting of Genoa, Lucca and the other small Italian states. The Czar of Russia was regarded as the ruler of a state more Asiatic than European, but was to be admitted to the league on his own application.

An equilibrium between the great powers of Europe would have been established by the acceptance of this scheme, which would have weakened both branches of the princely House of Hapsburg—that of Spain by the loss of the Netherlands, Franche-Comté and Lombardy, and that of Austria by the loss of Bohemia, Hungary and the Tyrol; thus carrying out the desire of Henry IV. for weakening Spain and humbling Austria, both of which powers were too strong for the welfare of Europe. Henry IV. also hoped thus to put an end to the religious wars and disputes, and to establish a system of international law which should be binding upon all Europe. This grand scheme was cut short by its author's assassination, as we shall soon see.

As a preliminary part of his design, Henry IV. sought the humiliation of both branches of the House of Hapsburg. It was with this view that he aided the Protestants of Germany and Holland, and recommended the Pope to annex Naples and Sicily to the Papal States, thus severing Southern Italy from the dominion of the King of Spain. He also renounced the French claims upon Italy, thus seeking to deliver that country from all foreign dominion. He also intrigued with the oppressed Moriscoes of Spain; but the edict of King Philip III., expelling those Christianized Moors from Spain, frustrated the French king's efforts in their behalf.

For the purpose of humbling the Austrian House of Hapsburg, Henry IV. interfered in a dispute which broke out in Germany between the Protestant Union and the Catholic League in 1609. The death of Duke William of Cleves, Berg and Jülich in that year without heirs was followed by the seizure of those duchies by the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count Palatine of Neuburg. By the Treaty of Halle, in January, 1610, Henry IV. agreed to support them with a French army of ten thousand men, thus arraying himself distinctly as the enemy of the Austrian Hapsburgs, as the Emperor Rudolf II. claimed the estates of the deceased Duke William as a lapsed fief.

Henry IV. commenced his military preparations on a vast scale. He collected an army of thirty thousand men for the invasion of Germany, one of fourteen thousand men to join the Duke of Savoy and attack Lombardy, and one of twenty-five thousand men along the Pyrenees to invade Spain. Henry IV. postponed his departure for the seat of war, in order to celebrate the coronation of his queen, Mary de Medici, whom he had already appointed regent during his absence from Paris. She was crowned with great splendor at St. Denis, May 13, 1610.

In the midst of the festivities which enlivened Paris on the occasion of his queen's coronation, King Henry IV. wore a countenance of dejection, and seemed to take no pleasure in the festivities, his mind being distracted by the most gloomy forebodings, in fearful anticipation of a sudden and violent death.

The next day the good king's apprehensions were fatally realized. In reply to an expression of affection from one of his attendants, he said: "You do not know me now; but when you have lost me you will know my worth, and the difference between me and other men." Bassompierre then said to him: "Sire, will you never cease afflicting us by saying that you will soon die? You will live, if it please God, long and happy years. There is no felicity in the world equal to yours. You are in the flower of your age; in perfect health and strength of body, full of honor beyond any other mortal; in the tranquil enjoyment of the most flourishing kingdom, adored by your subjects, possessed of wealth, of fine, beautiful palaces, a handsome wife and fine children. What can you desire more?" The king only sighed, and said in reply: "All these I must quit!"

In the afternoon of that day, May 14, 1610, he was was driven in his coach in company with six noblemen to visit the Duke of Sully, who was then ill at his residence, the arsenal. While the coach became entangled in a crowd, a Jesuit named François Ravaillac jumped upon one of the hind wheels of the vehicle, reached over and stabbed the good king twice in the breast while he was reading a letter. The coach was driven back to the Louvre, to which it might be tracked all the way by the blood which flowed from it. The wounded monarch was at once laid upon a bed, surrounded by weeping officers, and soon breathed his last, dying in the fifty-eighth year of his age and the twenty-first of his reign. His widowed queen, Mary de Medici, was proclaimed regent for his little son and successor, Louis XIII.

The consternation and the public grief were universal throughout France, and never was the death of any other king so lamented by his subjects. The French people almost went wild with sorrow and mourning. The assassin Ravaillac was put to the torture to make him reveal his motives for the regicide and the names of his accomplices. But he made no revelations, and was executed with the most shocking cruelties, amid the curses of the populace, May 27, 1610.

Henry IV. was one of the greatest and best of France's kings. He was a brilliant and successful warrior, a profound statesman, and a wise and vigorous ruler. France was rapidly increasing in power and prosperity under his enlightened and firm rule, and his death was a great misfortune to his kingdom. His memory as a sovereign has been justly hallowed by the admiration of posterity, and among all the Kings of France there is none whose name is so cherished to this day as that of Henry IV. His reign, like those of St. Louis and Louis XII., might serve as a model to all monarchs who love their subjects. He will always be honored for the clemency which he showed to his inveterate foes, the wisdom with which he tranquillized a kingdom distracted by civil wars for thirty-six years, and the enlightened toleration of which he gave a bright example himself and recommended the practice to his successors.

Though much of the glory of the public works of Henry IV. undoubtedly belongs to the Duke of Sully, the good king deserves praise for selecting so good and great a statesman for his Minister, and for

patiently bearing the reproofs which the Duke of Sully so frequently administered to him with almost republican boldness. The king was happy in having such a Minister, and the Minister was happy in having such a king; while the French nation was still more fortunate in enjoying so rare a combination as a wise and good sovereign and an able and patriotic administration of the government. The virtues of Henry IV. as a sovereign have caused posterity to throw the mantle of charity over the few serious vices and follies which marred his private character.

SECTION XVII.—POLAND AND RUSSIA.

POLAND and Russia, the two Slavonic monarchies of Eastern Europe—like the Scandinavian kingdoms in the North—still formed no part of the European States-System; and their history is therefore unconnected with that of Central, Western and Southern Europe. Both these nations were powerful and had able sovereigns during the sixteenth century, but their history demands only a brief notice.

POLAND.

One of the best of the Kings of Poland was SIGISMUND THE GREAT, who reigned forty-two years, A. D. 1506—1548. He was a wise and able sovereign; and Poland enjoyed more prosperity during his long reign than it had ever experienced before, as he patronized learning and industry, and preferred the blessings of peace to the glories of war. After vainly endeavoring to check the progress of the Reformation in Poland, Sigismund the Great wisely abandoned the attempt, and contented himself with excluding Protestants from all public offices. During this period there were at least fifty printing-presses in Cracow alone, and books were printed in more than eighty towns in the kingdom. Poland was then the only European country which permitted freedom of the press. Copernicus, the great astronomer, flourished during the reign of Sigismund the Great, and was a native of Thorn, then in Poland, but now in Prussia. Under Sigismund the Great, Lithuania was permanently united with Poland.

The next King of Poland was SIGISMUND AUGUSTUS, who reigned twenty-four years, A. D. 1548–1572, and was also a great monarch. During his reign the Dukedom of Prussia became a feudal dependency of Poland, and with his death ended the dynasty of the Jagellos and the greatness of Poland.

Poland had been partially an elective kingdom for almost two centuries, but during that entire period the Polish sovereign had been chosen from the family of the Jagellos. Upon the death of Sigismund Augustus, in 1572, the Polish crown became entirely elective, without regard to hereditary descent.

After an interregnum of some months, HENRY OF VALOIS was chosen King of Poland by the Polish Diet in 1573; but he accepted that dignity with great reluctance; and upon the death of his brother, King Charles IX. of France, the next year, 1574, he abdicated the throne of Poland, and returned to Paris and became King Henry III. of France. When he left the Polish capital he carried the Polish crown jewels with him, and was pursued on horseback for many miles by many of the Polish nobles, who vainly endeavored to persuade him to return.

After another short interregnum, the Polish Diet chose STEPHEN BATHORI to the vacant Polish throne in 1575. He died in 1586; and in 1587, after another brief interregnum, the Diet of Poland elected SIGISMUND III., who also became King of Sweden by inheritance upon the death of his father, John III. of Sweden, in 1592. Sigismund III. lost the Swedish crown in 1599, but reigned over Poland forty-five

years, dying in 1632. His deposition in Sweden led to a war between Sweden and Poland, which lasted for some years, and which will be noticed in the history of the seventeenth century.

RUSSIA.

VASSILI V., who became Autocrat of All the Russias upon the death of his illustrious father, Ivan the Great, in 1505, carried out his father's policy firmly and successfully. In 1510 he annexed Pskov to his dominions, thus extinguishing the last of the semi-independent principalities of Russia. The Tartars of Kazan revolted against him; but they were utterly routed in battle in 1524, and again in 1530, when they were made tributary to Russia. Vassili V. engaged in many wars with the Poles and the Lithuanians, without accomplishing any important results. He further enlarged and consolidated the Russian dominions by his abilities as a warrior and a statesman. After a reign of twenty-eight years, he died in 1533.

IVAN IV., THE TERRIBLE, the son and successor of Vassili V., was only a child when the death of his father made him Autocrat of all the Russias. His mother Helena assumed the regency, contrary to Russian custom, and held her position four years, crushing all opposition with despotic cruelty. She was poisoned in 1537; whereupon the regency was seized by the Shuiski, a powerful boyar family, whose chief was the president of the supreme council of boyars.

The Shuiski family had suffered many humiliations and much bad treatment from the Grand Princes of Russia. They now gratified their revenge by inflicting all kinds of indignities upon the youthful Ivan IV., whose life was passed in a state of constant terror. They plundered the national treasury and robbed the Russian people, and the insolent regent even went so far as to throw himself on the bed of the young Ivan IV. and rudely thrust his feet into the lap of the Autocrat of all the Russias. The Shuiski family punished all opposition to their despotic power with remorseless cruelty, and Ivan IV. saw his friends dragged from his presence and put to death with horrible tortures in spite of his entreaties in their behalf.

In 1543, when Ivan IV. was fourteen years of age, the Shuiski were overthrown by the Glinski, another boyar family, who seized the regency and were sustained by the boy sovereign himself, who informed the Shuiski that he no longer needed their guidance and would no longer submit to their encroachments on his royal prerogative. Said he: "I ought to punish you all, for all of you have been guilty of offenses against my person; but I will be indulgent, and the weight of my anger shall fall only on Andrew Shuiski, who is the worst among you." Andrew Shuiski, the head of the family, endeavored to justify himself; but Ivan IV. would not listen to him. Exclaimed the boy despot: "Seize and bind him, and throw him to my dogs! They have a right to the repast!" Thereupon a pack of ferocious hounds, which Ivan IV. took delight in rearing, were brought under the window and irritated by every possible means; and, when they were sufficiently exasperated, Andrew Shuiski was thrown among them. His cries increased their fury, and they tore his body to shreds and devoured it.

The Glinski pursued a course of cruelty and despotism similar to that which had characterized the rule of the Shuiski. The only difference between the two families was this: While the Shuiski treated the boy sovereign with the greatest indignity and contempt, the Glinski thrust him forward as a cover for all their acts, and plundered, killed and tortured in his name. They diligently taught Ivan IV. that the boyars were his natural enemies instead of the chief supporters of his throne, and that he could maintain his power and dignity only by the most stern and cruel measures.

The Glinski applauded and encouraged the development of the boy despot's naturally cruel instincts. They praised him when he tormented wild animals for his

own amusement, and when he threw tame ones down from the summit of his palace with the same cruel delight; when he dashed old people to the ground in his disorderly rambles, and when he trampled the women and children of Moscow under the hoofs of his horses. Fourteen years of the life of Ivan IV.—from the age of three years to that of seventeen—were passed amid these terrible scenes, and he was kept in such constant dread and agitation that his naturally strong mind became warped. He learned to delight in cruelty and to think that to torment his subjects was his only safety.

The rule of the Glinski lasted only three years. In 1547 the people of Moscow, driven to desperation and despair, rose against the despotic family, massacred them and fired the city. In the midst of the terrible scenes which followed, a monk named Sylvester entered the palace with the Gospels in his hands. He sternly told young Ivan IV. that the outbreak was a manifestation of the Divine vengeance for the crimes which the Glinski had committed in his name, and exhorted him to heed the warning and govern his subjects with justice. Appalled by the monk's awful words, Ivan IV. promised to do better. Alexis Adashef, a prominent boyar, also entreated Ivan IV. to rule more justly; and the result was a great change in the administration of the government.

Ivan the Terrible now assumed the title of *Czar*, meaning "Cæsar." He submitted himself to Sylvester and Adashef, confiding the government of the Russian dominions to the latter. Russia enjoyed the blessings of internal peace and good government for the next thirteen years. Order was speedily restored in the government, and justice was administered with impartiality. A regular standing army called the *Strelitz* was organized, and regularity was again restored in the military service.

The Tartar Khan of Kazan had made himself independent during the minority of Ivan the Terrible. In 1552 Ivan led a powerful Russian army against Kazan, which he conquered, hopelessly breaking the power of the Tartars of that region. In 1553 a commercial road was opened to Archangel, on the White Sea, at that time the only port of Russia. In 1554 the Russians conquered the Tartar Khanate of Astrakhan, thus extending their frontier to the Caspian Sea. Fortresses were erected along the entire

GREAT BELL OF MOSCOW.

frontier to hold the Tartars in check. In 1570 the Don Cossacks were united with the Russian Empire, and in 1581–'82 a Cossack freebooter named Yermak conquered Siberia for Ivan the Terrible.

Ivan the Terrible did much for the promotion of Russian commerce, concluded commercial treaties with Queen Elizabeth of England, induced many Englishmen and Germans to settle in the Russian dominions, and established a printing office in Moscow in 1569. He conducted frequent wars with Sweden and Poland with varying success. He made an unsuccessful effort to expel the Teutonic Knights from Livonia, and in 1582 he was obliged to end the war by surrendering Livonia to Sweden.

Alexis Adashef died in 1560; and Anastasia, the wife of Ivan the Terrible, to whom her husband was tenderly attached, died soon afterward. Ivan himself was taken seriously ill about the same time, and his illness came near proving fatal. After recovering his health he exhibited symptoms of insanity, which became a settled characteristic of his nature. He was thenceforth gloomy and suspicious. He would break out in terrible rages, during which he did not hesitate to strike down with his own hand any one who happened to offend him, regardless of his rank or station. He was perpetually tormented with fears of a revolt of his boyars, and surrounded himself with a select body of soldiers, for whom he made way by ruthlessly driving out the inhabitants of the streets adjoining his palace. He took delight in inflicting suffering upon his subjects, whose abject submission to his tyranny is one of the most remarkable circumstances in history.

THE PEOPLE OF KAZAN SUBMITTING TO IVAN THE TERRIBLE.

Ivan the terrible hated the people of Novgorod for their free spirit; and in 1570, when he ascertained that they were in traitorous correspondence with the Poles to surrender the city to them, he hastened thither with his Strelitzes, closed the gates and lined

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the streets with troops. A court called the *Tribunal of Blood* proceeded to try the delinquent citizens of Novgorod, and this court condemed numbers to death daily for six weeks. Grief, horror and despair reigned in every dwelling in Novgorod, for there was no escape, no means of resistance. The cruel despot raged like an incensed tiger during those six terrible weeks, and sixty thousand of the Novgorodians are said to have fallen victims to his furious rage. He himself killed a throng of the unfortunate inhabitants and heaped their bodies in a vast enclosure. When his strength finally failed to second his fury he gave up

IVAN THE TERRIBLE.

the remainder to his select guard, to his slaves, to his dogs, and to the opened ice of the Volkhof, in which hundreds of those unfortunate beings were engulfed daily for more than a month. After declaring that his justice was satisfied he retired from Novgorod, and seriously recommended himself to the prayers of the survivors, who were particularly careful to render obedience to the orders of the tyrant.

Ivan the Terrible caused similar massacres to be perpetrated in Tver, Pskov, Moscow and other Russian cities. He caused five hundred of the most illustrious nobles of Moscow to be tortured and put to death. Women, as well as men, perished. The cruel tyrant ordered them to be hanged at their own doors, and forbade their husbands to go in or out without passing under the corpses of their companions until they rotted and dropped in pieces upon them. Elsewhere husbands and children were fastened dead to the places which they had occupied at the domestic table, and their wives and mothers were forced to sit opposite to the lifeless remains for days. The crazy tyrant compelled sons to kill their fathers, and brothers to slay each other. He threw his prisoners of war into boiling cauldrons, or roasted them at slow fires which he himself stirred up. The whole Russian Empire was filled with terror and bloodshed.

Finally some of the most faithful boyars, with the cruel despot's eldest son at their head, mustered sufficient courage to present an humble petition for mercy. The enraged tyrant killed his son with a single blow from his iron-bound staff. He manifested great remorse for this mad deed, which hastened his death in 1584.

Notwithstanding his madness and tyranny, Ivan the Terrible, the first Czar of Muscovy, did more for the greatness of Russia than any of his predecessors. His conquests extended the territorial dominion of Russia and strengthened its resources; but that empire did not yet take any part in general European affairs, as it was isolated from the other European nations by Poland and Sweden, which two kingdoms possessed the territory west of Russia and the Baltic shores. The Crim Tartars occupied the country between Russia and the Black Sea. Russia's only ports were upon the Caspian and White Seas. The port of Archangel, on the White Sea, was founded during this reign, and was the point from which Russia's commerce with England and the other European countries was carried on during that period.

FEODOR I., the second son of Ivan the Terrible, was twenty-seven years of age when he became Czar of Russia, at the time

of his father's death, in 1584. He was weak and sickly, and he took special delight in haunting the churches and ringing the bells. He was in no way fitted to be the sovereign of an empire. His father had been aware of his infirmity, and had therefore left him under the care of a council of boyars, whose leading spirit was Boris Godunof, a man of Tartar descent and Feodor's brother-in-law. Boris Godunof soon assumed the supreme power of Russia and administered the government according to his own will, the weak Feodor I. being a mere instrument in his hands. Boris caused Dimitri, the other son of Ivan the Terrible, although but a child, to be banished to an estate which his father had left him, where he was afterward murdered by order of Boris.

Boris Godunof did all in his power to gain the favor of the people of Moscow, because he aspired to be his sovereign's successor on the Russian throne; and his great abilities enabled him to carry out his designs successfully. In 1591 the Tartar Khan of the Crimea invaded Russia and advanced against Moscow, which was unprotected by fortifications. The inhabitants were in despair; but Boris, with extraordinary energy, caused a line of fortifications to be thrown up around the city, and manned it with a strong force of infantry and artillery. The assault of the Tartars was repulsed, and their army thereupon commenced a disastrous retreat homeward.

With the death of Feodor I., in 1598, ended the male line of Rurik, which had occupied the Russian throne for seven hundred and thirty-six years (A. D. 862–1598). The Russian nobles and people then called BORIS GODUNOF to the throne of Muscovy; and, after a feigned hesitation, he complied with their wishes, thus beginning his reign of seven years, of which we shall give an account in another section.

SECTION XVIII.—RISE OF THE MODERN PERSIAN EMPIRE.

FOR more than a century under Tamerlane's successors Persia was distracted by civil wars, until the beginning of the sixteenth century, when that famous land again came under the sway of a native Persian dynasty. In 1503 ISMAIL SUFFEE, a descendant of the holy Sheikh Suffee, established the independence of Persia, and became the founder of the Suffavean, or Suffeean, dynasty. From small beginnings Ismail saw his power increase during a period of four years until the whole of Persia submitted to his authority, thus giving rise to the Modern Persian Empire.

Sultan Selim I. of Turkey, alarmed at the rise of this new Mohammedan power in the East, marched from Constantinople to crush his rising rival. The Shah Ismail was defeated in the great battle of Tabriz, in 1514; but Sultan Selim's death, in 1520, enabled him to retrieve his losses, and to subject even Georgia to his sway. Ismail is still venerated by the Persians as the restorer of their national independence.

Ismail died in 1523, and was succeeded as Shah of Persia by his son TAMASP, whose reign of fifty-three years was a period of great prosperity for Persia. Anthony Jenkinson, one of the earliest English adventurers to Persia, visited Tamasp's court as an envoy from Queen Elizabeth; but the Mohammedan sovereign's intolerance soon drove this Christian ambassador from his presence.

After the death of Tamasp, in 1576, his three sons disputed the Persian crown among themselves; but their short reigns deserve no notice. In 1582 ABBAS THE GREAT, grandson of Tamasp, was proclaimed Shah of Persia by some of the discontented nobles, and was compelled to appear in arms against his father Mohammed Mirza, who was deserted by his army, and is not mentioned again in history. But Abbas the Great did not long remain a mere instrument in the

hands of others; but, seizing the reins of power, he soon rose to distinction, and became a great and powerful monarch; and his reign is the most brilliant in the history of modern Persia.

Shah Abbas the Great successfully defended his kingdom against the efforts of the Turks to conquer it, defeating the Ottoman forces in many battles. In the battle of Erivan one hundred thousand Turks were defeated by a little more than sixty thousand Persians. The result of this Persian victory was that all the Turkish territories on the Caspian Sea, in Azerbijan, Georgia, Kurdistan, Bagdad, Mosul and Diarbekr were annexed to the Persian Empire.

During the reign of Shah Abbas the Great commercial intercourse was established between Persia and England, and the most amicable relations between those two nations continued for many years. With the aid of the English East India Company, Abbas the Great wrested Ormuz from the Portuguese in 1622; and that great emporium of the East soon relapsed into its original insignificance.

Shah Abbas the Great was in many respects an enlightened sovereign. Though he professed to be a devout Mohammedan, he tolerated all religions, and was particularly friendly to the few Christians who came into his dominions. His foreign policy was generally liberal. He expended his revenues in useful public works. Caravansaries, bridges, aqueducts, bazaars, mosques and colleges arose in every part of his dominions. His capital, Ispahan, was splendidly embellished, as were also other Persians cities. The ruins of the palaces of Furrahbad, in Mazunderan, and of Ashruff, in Astrabad, still attest his munificence. Even at the present time, if a stranger sees an edifice of more than ordinary beauty or solidity, and inquires who was its founder, he is likely to be answered that it is the work of Shah Abbas the Great.

There have been few sovereigns who have done more substantial good to their kingdom than Shah Abbas the Great. He studied to improve the administration of Persia, and his exertions proved beneficial to his subjects. He established an internal tranquillity throughout his dominions that had been unknown for centuries. He put an end to the annual ravages of the Uzbeck Tartars, whom he confined to their own territories. He drove the Ottoman Turks from his kingdom, of which they had held some of the fairest provinces when he ascended the Persian throne. Justice was administered in accordance with the laws of religion; and the state seldom interfered, except to support the law, or to punish those who thought themselves above it. In short, Shah Abbas the Great raised Persia to a height of prosperity beyond what it had enjoyed for ages.

Abbas the Great was severe in his administration of justice; and in his later years his punishments were sudden and summary, and were inflicted upon mere suspicion. He was a cruel tyrant to his own family and relatives. He had four sons, on whom he doted so long as they were children; but when they approached manhood they became objects of his jealousy. The eldest of these sons, Suffee Mirza, a brave and high-spirited youth, fell the first victim to his father's suspicion; being stabbed as he came out of the bath, by order of his unnatural father, who was soon afterward so stung with remorse for his unfatherly act that he put to death the nobles who had inflamed his mind against his son. But repentance wrought no change in the gloomy soul of Shah Abbas the Great. One of his sons had died before the murder of Suffee Mirza; and the inhuman father caused the eyes of the two remaining sons to be put out, so as to render them incapable of reigning.

The elder of these two surviving sons had two children, the older of whom was a lovely girl named Fatima, who was the delight of her grandfather. The father of this child, goaded to desperation by his blindness and other misfortunes, seized her one day, as she came out to caress him, and, with maniac fury, killed her; after which he groped for his infant boy; but the

shrieking mother fled, carrying her child to her father-in-law for protection. The grief and rage of Abbas the Great for the murder of his favorite grandchild afforded a momentary joy to that child's miserable father, who ended the horrible tragedy by committing suicide by swallowing poison.

Such appalling scenes are of frequent occurrence in the palace of an Oriental despot. Yet Shah Abbas the Great is the monarch who is most admired by the Persians, and the tenure of arbitrary power is so precarious in Persia that sovereigns of a similar character alone have successfully ruled the nation. The perpetration of crime appears too often the dreadful obligation of that absolute power to which an Oriental monarch is born, and therefore the character of the government merits our abhorrence more than that of the despot. Persia's prosperity ended with the death of Abbas the Great, in 1628.

SECTION XIX.—RISE OF THE MOGUL EMPIRE IN INDIA.

THE dismemberment of the Ghiznivide Empire, about the middle of the twelfth century, was followed by the conquest of most of its territories in Hindoostan by Mohammed of Gaur, the chief of a horde of barbarians from the Hindoo Koosh, who plundered Benares, the most holy place of Hindoo superstition, and established his capital at Lahore, in the Punjab, A. D. 1183. After his death a new Afghan dynasty, called Patans, obtained possession of most of Hindoostan, and made the more central city of Delhi their capital. Baber, the second Patan sovereign of India, conquered Bengal; but his Persian and Tartar dominions were conquered by Zingis Khan's successors. For two centuries the wealth of the Patan kings at Delhi exposed them to constant attack from the Mongols and Tartars; but the most destructive of these invasions was that by Tamerlane in 1399, who captured Delhi after a great battle, plundered the city of its wealth, massacred one hundred thousand captives who impeded his march, and atrociously slaughtered multitudes of unarmed pilgrims to the Ganges.

Tamerlane established no permanent empire in India; and the Patan dynasty ended with the death of Mahmoud, in 1413, when the governors of provinces set up independent sovereignties, all of which were united into the *Great Mogul Empire*, founded in 1525 by BABER, a descendant of Tamerlane, and which lasted almost three centuries. Baber had been the sovereign of a little principality between Kashgar and Samarcand, the throne of which he ascended at the age of twelve years, and which he only secured permanently after a struggle with rival claimants. He invaded India in 1525 with thirteen thousand cavalry, and routed Ibrahim II., the native ruler of Delhi, who had a hundred thousand cavalry and a thousand elephants, fifty miles from Delhi —a victory which made Baber sovereign of Hindoostan. The native princes of India then combined against Baber, but their army of a hundred thousand men was put to flight.

Baber exhibited nothing of the barbarous character of the race from which he was descended. He was generous, enlightened and humane, and patronized literature and the arts. He was equaled by very few of his race in military capacity. He accomplished the most daring enterprises by his dauntless courage and perseverance, which arose above all difficulties, and rendered him more the object of admiration in his adversity than in the height of his prosperity. He did not forget himself in the hour of victory, but always exhibited that moderation and equanimity characteristic of a great soul. He distinguished himself as a lawgiver, excelled in literature, and wrote a volume of commentaries on his own reign, in the Mogul language, with elegance and

perspicuity. He was somewhat of a voluptuary, notwithstanding his great capacity for politics. When disposed to abandon himself to pleasure he caused a fountain to be filled with wine, upon which a verse of this kind was inscribed: "Jovial days! blooming spring! wine and love! Enjoy freely, O Baber, for life is not twice to be enjoyed!" He was rashly brave, and merciful to a fault, thus frequently endangering his own safety. He so often pardoned ingratitude and treason that he seemed to make a principle of returning good for evil.

Baber died in 1530 at the age of forty-nine, and was succeeded by his son HUMAYAN. Humayan defeated the King of Guzerat; but his brothers conspired against him; while the Afghan prince Shere Shah also rebelled against him, defeated him in several battles and dethroned him in 1540, compelling him to seek refuge in Persia, and seizing the Mogul crown for himself.

SHERE SHAH, as sovereign of Hindoostan, improved his dominions. He built caravansaries at every stage from the Indus to Bengal, dug a well at every two miles, erected the most magnificent mosques, planted rows of trees along the public highways, and established horse posts for the quicker conveyance of intelligence. Shere Shah reduced the power of the governors, and regulated the finances and the military. He devoted a fourth part of his time to administering justice, a fourth to the care of his army, a fourth to worship, and a fourth to rest and recreation. The native historian says that the public security was such that "travelers and merchants, throwing down their goods, composed themselves to sleep, without fear, upon the highway."

Shere Shah was killed by accident in 1545, after a reign of five years, and was succeeded by his son SELIM, who subdued a rebellion against him with great difficulty, and then reigned quietly. Selim, who was an able and moderate sovereign, displayed a taste for magnificence in architecture, and erected intermediate caravansaries between those built by his father.

After the death of Selim, in 1553, Hindoostan was plunged into great disorder, and Humayan was entreated to return and resume his authority. He had excited the sympathy of the sister of Tamasp, Shah of Persia, and of some of the Persian nobles, and was allowed a troop of ten thousand Persian cavalry to recover Cabul from his traitorous brothers.

Humayan's temporary loss of his throne had been largely the result of the treason of his brother Camiran, who had wrested the Punjab from his brother, and who had deserted him just before his second defeat by Shere Shah. No treaty could bind Camiran, and no kindness or generosity could arouse his gratitude; and he was now the chief obstacle in the way of Humayan's success. On one occasion Camiran exposed Akbar, his own nephew, Humayan's son, upon the walls of Cabul to deter Humayan from an assault; but he finally relented when he was told that every person in Cabul should die in case any harm happened to Akbar.

Camiran soon afterward fell into his brother's power; and, notwithstanding all his offenses, Humayan treated him with kindness and respect, only to be repaid with the basest perfidy at the first opportunity. The other brother, Hindal, repented of his treason, and died fighting nobly in Humayan's service.

When Camiran had again fallen into Humayan's power all the Mogul chiefs demanded that he should be put to death for his repeated crimes. Humayan's refusal of this demand almost occasioned a revolt of the chiefs. Humayan finally consented with great reluctance that his brother should be blinded with antimony, in order to prevent any further mischief. Several days afterward Humayan went to see his blinded brother. Camiran rose to meet him, exclaiming: "The glory of the king will not be diminished by visiting the unfortunate." Humayan burst into tears and wept bitterly, although Camiran sought to console him by acknowledging the justice of his punishment. The restless prince obtained permission to make a journey to

Mecca to expiate his crimes, and spent his last days in the Holy City of Arabia.

As Humayan had no army fit for the task of recovering his lost throne when he returned to Hindoostan, he fell into a deep melancholy; but, after his chiefs had made out some favorable omens to act on his mind through superstition, he crossed the Indus with a small force and took Lahore. His Vizier defeated one army sent to oppose him; and his son Akbar vanquished another of eighty thousand cavalry, many elephants and a large train of artillery.

The victorious Humayan entered Delhi in 1554, but died the next year from a fall. He walked out on the terrace of his library one evening, and sat there for some time to enjoy the fresh air. When he began to descend the steps of the stair leading to the terrace, the crier of the mosque, according to custom, proclaimed the time for prayers. Humayan, conformably to the practice of the Mohammedan religion, stood still and repeated the creed; after which he sat down until the proclamation was ended. As he was about rising he supported himself upon a staff, which slipped upon the marble step, thus causing him to fall headlong to the foot of the stairs. About sunset on the fourth day after this fall, "his soul took her flight to Paradise," says the Persian historian who gives the account of this affair. The same writer sums up Humayan's character in one phrase: "Had he been a worse man he would have been a greater monarch."

On the death of Humayan, in 1555, his son AKBAR became sovereign of the vast Mogul Empire in India, at the age of thirteen. His father had appointed his Vizier, Byram, regent during the youthful monarch's minority. Several highly popular measures favorably introduced the new reign; such as prohibiting the usual exaction of presents from farmers, permitting all goods to pass free of toll, and abolishing the practice of pressing laborers to the wars.

Upon hearing of Humayan's death, the Afghan Vizier, Himu, marched to Delhi and captured the city. Akbar at once intrusted the direction of affairs to Byram, whom he called "father." As Himu's army was five times larger than Akbar's, the latter's council of war advised a retreat to Cabul; but was opposed by Byram, who was so heartily seconded by the boy sovereign Akbar that the Mogul chiefs, delighted with the gallant alacrity of their youthful monarch, unanimously placed their lives and fortunes at his disposal.

The hostile armies encountered each other near Delhi; and the Moguls galled the troops of elephants in Himu's army so severely with arrows, lances and javelins that they became unmanageable and did as much injury to their masters as to their enemies. Himu, on a huge elephant, pushed four thousand cavalry into the very heart of the Mogul army. Being wounded in one eye he pulled out the arrow, and with it the eye; and, though thus horribly wounded, he continued the battle. His driver, in order to save himself, pointed out his master to the Moguls; and, through this treacherous cowardice, Himu was taken prisoner and conducted to Akbar's presence. Byram told his sovereign that it would be a good action to kill "that infidel" with his own hand. Akbar drew his sword, but burst into tears and only laid the sword on Himu's shoulder. Byram sternly reproved Akbar's untimely clemency, and beheaded Himu at one blow.

Byram's imperious disposition and severity soon caused Akbar to banish his faithful Vizier, who then headed a rebellion, but was defeated by Akbar's generals. Byram sent a slave to implore his sovereign's clemency, and Akbar generously pardoned his rebellious Vizier and treated him with the greatest kindness. The repentant Vizier, touched by his sovereign's magnanimity, burst into tears and cast himself at the foot of the throne. Akbar extended his hand to him, ordering him to rise and replacing him at the head of the princes of the Empire, and thus addressed him: "If the lord Byram loves a military life he shall have the government of Calpi and Chinderi, in which he may exercise his martial genius; if he

chooses rather to remain at court, our favor shall not be wanting to the great benefactor of our family; but should devotion engage the soul of Byram to perform a pilgrimage to Mecca, he shall be escorted in a manner suitable to his dignity."

Byram chose the last offer; but on his way to the Holy City of Arabia he was basely assassinated by the son of an Afghan chief whom he had killed in battle. Thus died a brave warrior and enlightened statesman, whose inhumanity, partly the result of a natural severity of disposition, was undoubtedly confirmed to a principle by repeated experience of the unfortunate effects of the clemency of Humayan and Akbar, the sovereigns whom he had so ably served.

Akbar conquered the Deccan, and had to suppress repeated rebellions. In his military character he displayed the most reckless courage and audacity, and the most remarkable rapidity and decision of attack before the enemy was able to gather or concentrate his strength. On one occasion, while marching to the relief of the governor of Guzerat, who was besieged, Akbar, with only three thousand cavalry and three hundred camels, repulsed an attack by seven thousand cavalry, utterly routing the assailants. On numerous other occasions he risked his life in the thickest of the fight like a common trooper.

Akbar's good fortune and valor brought him triumphantly out of every danger, and, along with the unparalleled vigor and skill of his government during a reign of fifty years, impressed his subjects with an idea that his powers of mind and body were supernatural. He was one of the most successful and powerful sovereigns that have reigned over Hindoostan, and his administration was distinguished by wisdom and equity. By his wise, liberal and beneficent policy, Akbar acquired and merited the title of "*Guardian of Mankind;*" and his reign was called the *Golden Age of India.*

The *Ayeen Akberry*, the "Mirror of Akbar"—a literary work written under his immediate direction, by his distinguished literary Vizier and friend, Abul Fazil, and which is still extant—details the comprehensive and excellent system of administration which Akbar put in practice. This work shows Akbar to have been preëminently a statesman, and affords valuable material for the historian. In addition to much financial and statistical matter, and sagacious observations upon men, politics and government, the *Ayeen Akberry* furnishes the regulations of the various departments and the domestic economy of the Mogul Empire in India, from the collection of the revenues and the care of the army to the stipends of the ladies of the harem, the daily food of Akbar's camels, and the manner in which his dinner was served.

From the *Ayeen Akberry* we learn the methodical survey of the Mogul Empire in India made by Akbar, and which comprises an account of the revenues, manufactures and agricultural productions of the different districts, etc. The resources of the Empire being thus fully ascertained, Akbar, with the aid of his learned Vizier, effected a thorough improvement of the internal state of his Empire, while his generals were enlarging it by conquest. The improvement of the administration was carried on with the greatest vigor. A new division of the Empire was made; and under this arrangement the Mogul dominions in India were divided into eleven *soobahs*, or states, which were subdivided into *circars*, and the latter into *pergunnahs*—distinctions existing in Hindoostan at the present time, though the Mogul sovereignty has been at an end for more than a century.

Akbar encouraged literature and learning. He founded schools and directed the compilation of books. He fostered the arts and industry so successfully that no country seems ever to have been more prosperous than the Mogul Empire in India during his reign. There was abundance in every portion of his dominions. Though no heavy burdens were imposed upon the people, the revenues amounted to the immense sum of two hundred and fifty million dollars, according to some estimates.

No Oriental monarch ever distinguished

himself in a more striking manner by administrative reforms than Akbar His internal improvements accomplished more real good for his subjects, and acquired more true glory for himself, than could have been effected by the most brilliant and successful military career of the mightiest monarch of the world.

Akbar spent most of the night in business and in listening to the discourses of philosophers and historians, whom he delighted to gather about him. About three hours before day musicians were introduced, and these performed vocal and instrumental music. After that His Majesty passed an hour in silent prayer. Just before dawn people of all classes were in attendance, awaiting their sovereign's appearance. In addition to the opportunities of audience regularly afforded to all, Akbar occasionally appeared at a window, when petitions might be offered to him without any kind of intervention. He abolished the immemorial custom of prostration. He took but one meal daily, and that was so simple that he did not taste any animal food for months. He slept but little, and that mainly in the forenoon and evening.

Akbar's principles of government were to gain and secure the affections of his subjects; to prevent all injustice, and all delay of justice; to be tolerant in religion; and to make a sparing use of capital punishment. It is said that he never even laughed at or ridiculed any religious sect. The governors of the various provinces of the Empire were changed every three years. Taxes were required to be collected in an "affable" manner; and the collector was to consider himself "the immediate friend of the husbandman," and to lend him money when he needed it, this money to be repaid at a favorable time.

Akbar's remarks on the administration of justice were peculiarly admirable for their clear, searching and impartial character. He removed many vexatious and injurious taxes, and substituted one broad, equitable levy upon all real estate, which he caused to be accurately surveyed, and the tax whereon he caused to be fixed. He remitted the navigation duties, and reduced the taxes on manufactures. He enhanced the value of the coin by improving its fineness.

Akbar was the first man in his dominions in accomplishments, intellect and virtue as well as in station. He possessed that rare and fortunate combination of qualities for rule by which he was enabled to project, and to appreciate when others had projected, some of the loftiest principles of government, and to carry them into practice by his practical skill and by his diligent and personally close attention to details.

The ancient city of Agra had become much dilapidated, and Akbar resolved to rebuild it and to make it the capital of his dominions instead of Delhi. For this purpose he collected the most skillful artisans and mechanics from all portions of Hindoostan, and by their aid the city rose from its ruined condition with great splendor.

A magnificent castellated palace was erected there, which surpassed every other structure of its character in Hindoostan. It was four miles long; and lofty walls were constructed of enormous red stones resembling jasper, which shone with great brilliancy under the bright sun. The entire structure was ornamented with stately porticoes, galleries and turrets, all elegantly painted and gilded, and many of them plated with gold.

The gardens attached to this immense edifice were laid out with the most exquisite taste, and were decorated with all that could gratify the eye or the ear. There were the loveliest shades of foliage, the most blooming bowers, grottoes of the most refreshing coolness, fruits of the most delicious flavor, and cascades that never ceased to murmur. In front of the palace toward the river was a vast area for the exercise of the royal elephants and for the combats of wild beasts—spectacles which the Mogul Emperors of India viewed with the greatest delight.

The Dutch traveler Mandelslo, who visited Agra in 1638, stated that the great palace just described was the most magnificent

structure that he had ever beheld. The avenue to the Emperor's presence-chamber was lined with pillars of silver. The chamber itself was of the size of a large hall, and was adorned with pillars of gold. The throne was of massy gold incrusted with diamonds and other precious stones. One of the towers of the edifice was likewise plated with gold. This tower contained the imperial treasures, in eight large vaults, which were filled with gold, silver, and precious stones of inestimable value.

In a line with the palace along the banks of the river were ranged the magnificent residences of the princes and the great rajahs, who vied with each other in embellishing the new capital and metropolis of India. These majestic structures were interspersed with avenues of lofty trees, broad canals and beautiful gardens. Akbar's munificence also provided Agra with an immense number of caravansaries, bazaars and mosques, remarkable for their stately size and for their elegant architecture.

Akbar's policy was in a high degree liberal to foreigners. This enlightened monarch invited intelligent men of all nations to settle in his capital. He caused houses and stores to be erected for them, permitted them free toleration for their religion, and granted them various privileges and immunities.

He opened an intercourse with the Portuguese, and invited the Portuguese government to send missionaries into his dominions that the Hindoos might be instructed in Christianity. Instead of displaying the bigotry so characteristic of most Mohammedan sovereigns, Akbar seems to have understood the principles of religerous toleration better than any Christian monarch of his time. In his letter to the King of Portugal, he severely censured the slavish propensity of mankind to adopt the religious opinions of their fathers without evidence or investigation; and he desired to be supplied with translations of the Christian Scriptures, as well as other works of general utility.

In one of his proclamations, addressed to the officers of his Empire, he gave expression to the following sentiment: "The most acceptable adoration in this world, which a man can pay to his Creator, is to discharge his duty faithfully toward his fellow-creatures, discarding passion and partiality, and without distinction of friend or foe, relative or stranger."

He allowed the Portuguese to erect a church and found a college at Agra, and even endowed the college with a pension from his own treasury. By such liberal and politic measures, Akbar succeeded in making Agra the most flourishing city of Hindoostan; and it became thronged with Portuguese, Persian, Arab and Chinese merchants, who flocked in multitudes to this rich mart of Oriental commerce. During Akbar's reign the name of Agra was changed to *Akbarabad*, or the City of Akbar. Akbar died in 1605, and was succeeded by his son JEHANGHIRE.

SECTION XX.—PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION.

THE great Reformation resulted in the establishment of Protestantism among the Germanic nations of Europe—England, Scotland, Holland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Northern Germany; while the Roman Catholic faith remained fixed among the Latin nations—Italy, Spain, Portugal, and France. Southern Germany, Austria, and Poland also remained Roman Catholic. Hungary became largely Protestant. Russia adhered to the Greek Church. The Slavonic and Greek races in the Turkish dominions also held fast to the Greek Church, but groaned under the bigoted despotism of their Mohammedan conquerors.

The sixteenth century was remarkable for the mighty impulse which civilization re-

ceived in all European countries. Schools were improved, and universities multiplied. The works of antiquity were translated into the modern European languages. Germany and Italy were the chief seats of learning and civilization. The many universities in Germany established through the efforts of Philip Melanchthon, the great Reformer, cultivated and developed the study of the ancient classical literature. The great scholar, Erasmus, of Rotterdam, in Holland, was called to England, by Cardinal Wolsey, to teach Greek at Oxford. The Reformation awakened a spirit of inquiry, and wonderful discoveries were made in the field of science, especially in astronomy; while bold navigators were bringing to the knowledge of Europe distant lands in America, Africa and Asia.

NICHOLAS COPERNICUS.

NICHOLAS COPERNICUS (1473–1543)—a distinguished German astronomer, a native of Thorn, then in Poland—demonstrated the falsity of the theory of the great astronomer of the second century of the Christian era, Ptolemy, of Alexandria, in Egypt, that the earth is the center of the solar system, around which the sun and the other planets revolve—a theory which had been accepted for fourteen centuries; but his great work, *De Orbium Celestium Revolutionibus*, "The Revolution of the Celestial Orbs"—in which he maintained that the sun is the centre of the solar system, around which the planets revolve—was not published during his life time, through fear, and was only published after his death by a Roman cardinal, who dedicated the work to Pope Paul III., himself a mathematician.

TYCHO BRAHE (1546–1601)—a famous Danish astronomer—made astronomical observations from the observatory erected by King Frederick II. of Denmark at Uranienborg, on the island of Huen, for many years.

As we have seen, the Age of Queen Elizabeth was one of the most brilliant periods of English literature. EDMUND SPENSER (1553–1599)—poet-laureate under Queen Elizabeth—wrote the *Faerie Queen*, an allegorical poem, written in stanzas of nine lines each, called the Spenserian stanza. Though it is not now much read and lacks strong human interest, this poem exhibits exquisite sweetness of language, pure and tender feeling, and fine imagination.

The immortal English dramatist WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE (1564–1616)—born and buried at Stratford-upon-Avon—composed thirty-seven dramas, in which he shows the various phases of human nature, and which place him among the first of poets. When a young man he went to London, where he became an actor, a manager of a theater, and a playwright. The greatest of his dramas are *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *King Lear*, *Romeo and Juliet*, *Julius Cæsar*, *King John*, *Richard II.*, *Henry IV.*, *Richard III.*, *The Tempest*, *The Merchant of Venice*, *The Midsummer Night's Dream*, and *The Merry Wives of Windsor*. The last two are the best known of his comedies; and in the latter the fat Falstaff, the companion of

Henry V., and the type of a comic character, plays the principal part. Shakespeare gave its full perfection to dramatic poetry, whether of tragedy or comedy. His dramas are founded upon historical events, or upon the ordinary affairs of human life. Shakespeare has been called the "Myriad-minded." Some writers may equal him in a particular point, but none ever possessed his wonderful power of ascertaining and showing the workings of the human heart.

SIR PHILIP SIDNEY (1554–1586)—the distinguished courtier and soldier who was mortally wounded on the field of Zutphen while fighting for the liberties of the Netherlands—did not write much for publication, but had a fine poetic temperament, and produced two works that had a powerful influence on the intellectual spirit of the age. These were *Arcadia* and *Defense of Poesie;* the former being a heroic romance now read but little, and the latter being one of the earliest specimens of English criticism.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH (1552–1618)—the renowned courtier, soldier and adventurer—was also a poet of some ability, and a great friend of Spenser. Though a great favorite of Queen Elizabeth, he incurred the displeasure of her successor, in whose reign he was imprisoned for twelve years, during which he wrote his *History of the World*. He was beheaded in 1618, as we shall presently see.

France produced two renowned writers during the sixteenth century. RABELAIS (1483–1553) was a priest and a famous satirist, who wrote a book called *The Life of Gargantua and Pantagruel*, which vividly illustrates the first half of the sixteenth century, but is immoral.

MONTAIGNE (1533–1592)—a noted skeptic—was a judge and Mayor of Bordeaux, but after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew he retired to the solitude of his own chateau, where he wrote the observations on life and manners which were afterward published as his *Essays*. His motto was *Que sais-je?* "What do I know?" His *Essays* were early translated into English, and have been widely read ever since.

The sixteenth century was also the golden age of literature in Spain and Portugal. CERVANTES (1547–1616)—the celebrated Spanish novelist—wrote many plays and tales; but his immortal work is his comical and satirical romance, *Don Quixote*, one of the finest pieces of humor ever written, and which so artfully represents a man who utterly mistakes the misty creations of a world of dreams for realities, and who fights for an object that exists only in his own imagination, that the term *quixotic* has become proverbial. Cervantes led an adventurous life, and was once captured by Algerine pirates and sold into slavery.

CAMOENS (1524-1579)—the only great Portuguese poet—described the chief actors and events of Portuguese history in his great epic poem, the *Lusiad*, in which he ennobled the epoch of the Portuguese discovery of India. During a passage home from the East Indies he lost his property by a shipwreck, saving only his great poem, which he held fast with his teeth as he swam. In Portugal he gradually fell into such abject poverty that he had bread collected by a Hindoo servant to escape death by starvation.

In Italy the flourishing period of literature and art begun in the fifteenth century continued throughout the whole of the sixteenth. MACCHIAVELLI (1469-1527)—a most politic statesman, a most acute thinker and a most pleasing historian, who flourished at Florence under the Medici—wrote *Discourses on Titus Livius*, *The Prince*, and the *History of Florence*. These works still excite universal admiration. In the well-known book, *The Prince*, Macchiavelli presents the spectacle of a ruler who, regardless of virtue, morality or religion, knows how to establish his own absolute power and make his own will the law. In this book freedom and national prosperity are as little regarded as truth and justice, only intellect being held in any estimation. Thus a faithless system of policy is called *Macchiavellian*.

In Ferrara the ducal court of the younger branch of the House of Este was ornamented by two of the greatest of Italian poets dur-

ing the sixteenth century. ARIOSTO (1474–1533) wrote *Orlando Furioso*, a fascinating and sportive heroic poem. TASSO (1544–1595) wrote *Jerusalem Delivered*, an epic poem on the First Crusade, clothed in beautiful language.

In Germany the *Meistersong*, a kind of burgher poetry, was flourishing in the towns. HANS SACHS (1494–1576), the cobbler-poet of Nuremberg, was the most distinguished of the Meistersingers, and wrote six thousand pieces. SEBASTIAN BRANDT of Strasburg (1458–1521), a satirical poet, was the author of the *Ship of Fools*. JOHANN FISCHART of Mayence, who died in 1591, was also a great satirical poet.

Italy and Germany were the seats of the fine arts during the sixteenth century, and all the great European artists of that period were natives of those two countries.

MICHAEL ANGELO.

LEONARDO DA VINCI (1452–1519)—a great Italian painter, sculptor and architect—flourished at Milan, his great painting being *The Last Supper*.

MICHAEL ANGELO (1474–1564)—the greatest Italian painter, sculptor and archi-

tect—flourished at Florence under the Medici, and superintended the building of St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome.

RAPHAEL (1483–1520)—an illustrious painter who flourished at Rome under Pope Leo X.—painted *Madonnas* and sacred pictures, and decorated the walls of the Vatican.

THE WIFE OF ALBERT DURER.

CORREGGIO (1494–1534) was also a distinguished Italian painter, noted for softness and tenderness; and his most famous painting was his *Penitent Magdalen*, eighteen inches square, for which a sum equal to thirty thousand dollars was paid.

TITIAN (1477–1576) was an eminent Venitian portrait and landscape painter, whose chief works are at Venice and Madrid.

PAUL VERONESE (1530–1588) was also a celebrated Italian painter of the sixteenth century, rich in imagination.

ALBERT DURER (1471–1528)—"the Father of German painting"—was a great painter, engraver and sculptor, whose best paintings are *Christian Martyrs in Persia* and *Adoration of the Holy Trinity.*

LUCAS KRANACH (1472–1553) was likewise a great German painter and engraver.

HANS HOLBEIN (1498–1543)—a great German portrait painter—spent most of his life in England under the patronage of King Henry VIII.

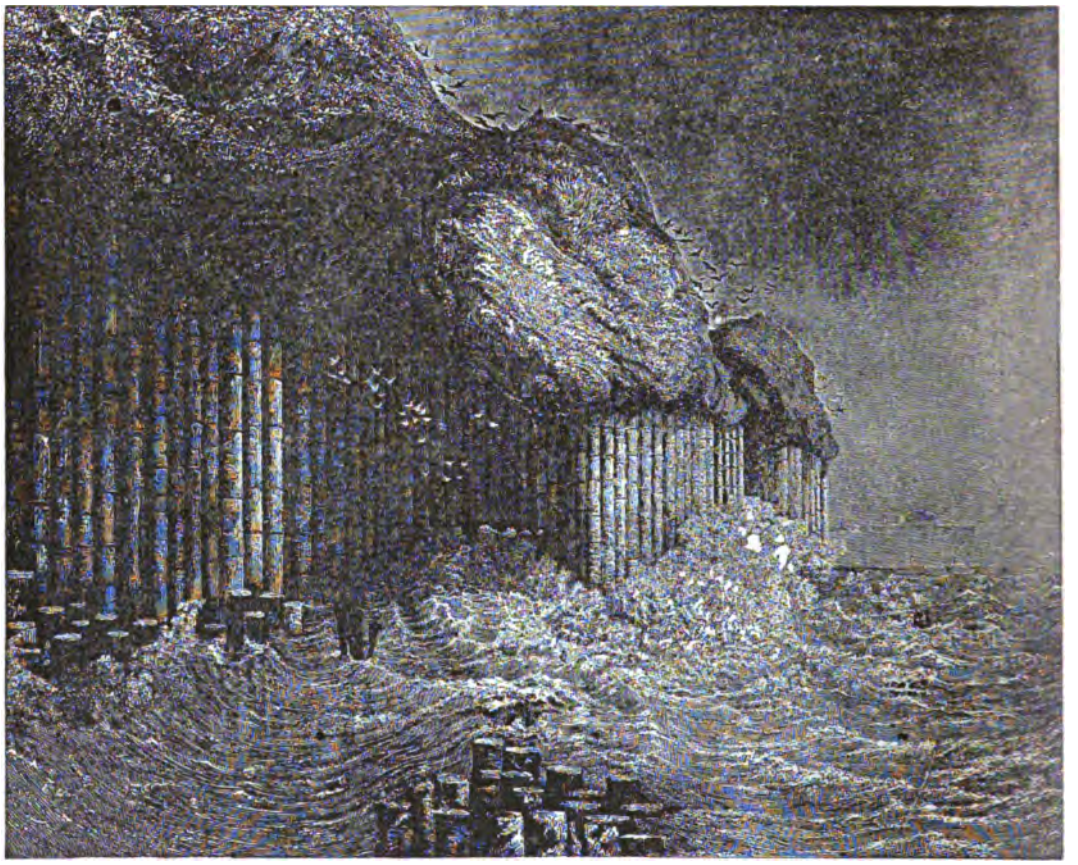
The sixteenth century was a period of great material progress, and the wonderful commercial revival brought many changes—many new elements characteristic of modern civilization. By degrees communication and correspondence became more easy and rapid, by the construction of canals and military roads. Systems of commercial credit were established at Antwerp, Amsterdam, London and other European cities. Great fairs for trading purposes were held at Brunswick and Leipsic, in Germany, and at other cities. Banks, insurance companies and post-offices were founded in great numbers.

The increased commercial activity stimulated progress in the industrial arts. Very great progress was made in these in all civilized countries. The processes of spinning and weaving were at first very simple, crude and tedious. The instruments used in spinning were the spindle and distaff, and then the spinning-wheel; while weaving was dependent on the loom and shuttle, and embroidery was executed by hand.

With these simple means weaving had reached a high degree of perfection before

the sixteenth century, particularly in Flanders, France and Italy, and in the cities of Brussels, Antwerp, Bruges, Valenciennes and Arras in the Spanish Netherlands, and the cities of Genoa and Florence in Italy. Tapestry-weaving displayed the highest perfection of artistic excellence, and immense sums were paid for the rich products of this skill. The silk velvets of Genoa were particularly esteemed. Stocking-knitting was introduced in the first part of the sixteenth century, and a Saxon matron invented lace-knitting in the same century, while the stocking-loom was also invented about the same time. Cotton-fabrics were made in Italy and Spain in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

In France the nobles, except those connected with the royal court, were poor and helpless; as their fields were uncultivated and unproductive, and they themselves had scarcely the means of subsistence, their pride of rank forbidding them to improve their condition by labor. The bourgeoisie, or middle classes, embracing the merchants, trades-people, artisans, etc., were in many cases affluent, in some instances rivaling the nobility in the richness and elegance of their houses, in their dresses, and in their equipages. The general condition of the French peasantry during this period was one of wretchedness and squalor.



FINGAL'S CAVE, ISLE OF STAFFA, COAST OF SCOTLAND.

The skilled artisans driven from France and the Netherlands to England by religious persecution laid the foundation of the manufacturing prosperity of that country. Agriculture was carried on more skillfully in England, though vast tracts of land were still devoted to the pasturage of sheep. The condition of the English peasantry was considerably improved. Their wattled huts gradually gave place to comfortable houses.

THE REFORMERS.

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Flushing
Ostend
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Ghent
Antwerp
Bergen op Zoom
Turnhout
Mechlin
Dunkirk
Gravelines
Calais
Boulogne
Scheldt River
Oudenarde
Brussels
Tournay
Lille
Mons
HAINAULT
Namur
Liege
LIEGE
Malmedy
Cologne
Juliers
Dusseldorf
Deutz
Aix la Chapelle
Cleves
Wesel
Munster
Paderborn
Siegen
Fredeburg
Cassel
Waldeck
Gottingen
Frankenhausen
Lutter
Uslar
Hersfeld
Marburg
Wetzlar
Fulda
Schmalkald
Eisenach
Gotha
Erfurt
Jena
Wartburg
Rosbach
Leipzig
Lutzen
Halle
Torgau
Chemnitz
Schleitz
Arras
Cambray
Valenciennes
Amiens
St. Quentin
Peronne
Rocroy
Dinant
Beauvais
Noyon
Mezieres
Sedan
LUXEMBURG
Luxemburg
Coblenz
Homburg
FRANKFORT
Hanau
Mayence
Schweinfurt
Darmstadt
Wurzburg
Wertheim
Bayreuth
Soissons
Crespy
Treves
Worms
Mannheim
Heidelberg
Noremberg
Amberg
Anspach
St. Denis
Rheims
Thionville
Metz
Forbach (To France)
Hamburg
PARIS
Versailles
Marne
Verdun
Chalons
LOTHRINGEN
Toul
Nancy
Luneville
STRASBURG
Ludwigsburg
STUTTGART
Nordlingen
Donnauworth
Pappenheim
Ratisbon
Neustadt
Ingolstadt
Neuburg
SWABIA
Nogent
Troyes
Vassy
Seine
LORRAINE
Ulm
Burgau
Augsburg
Erding
MUNICH
Loire
Rottwell
Neubreisach
Tuttlingen
Friburg
Belfort
Mulhausen
Waldshut
Schaffhausen
Constance
Schongau
FUSSEN
Lindau
Bourges
Noyers
Vesoul
Basle
BASLE
THURGAU
ZURICH
Zurich
St. Gall
Appenzell
Dijon
Besancon
Solcure
Kappel
Auxonne
Nevers
Autun
Chalons
FRANCHE COMTE
NEUCHATEL
Neuchatel
Lucerne
Schwytz
Landeck
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Clermont
Bourg
Lyons
River
Montbrison
St. Etienne
Vienne
Rhone
SAVOY
Aix
Annecy
Briancon
Vercelli
Trino
Novara
Magenta
Milan
Marignano
Lodi
Brescia
Riva
Trent
Rivoli
Verona
Arcole
Belluno
Padua
Vicenza
Bassano
ITALY
Longitude 12

HISTORICAL MAP
OF
GERMANY,
SWITZERLAND
AND
THE NETHERLANDS
DURING THE
REFORMATION
AND THE
THIRTY YEARS' WAR
A.D. 1517 - 1648
By I.S.Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 5 10 20 30 40 50
Possessions of the House of Austria or Hapsburg ..... Red
Possessions of the House of Brandenburg or Hohensollern ..... Green
from Greenwich
14
16
18
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52
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48
46
SEA
Memel
Tilsit
Konigsberg
Friedland
Eylau
Elbing
Marienburg
Dantzig
Danzig
Neustettin
Schneidemuhl
Bromberg
Thorn
Plock
WARSAW
Lowicz
Gnesen
Posen
Schrimm
Bentschen
Frankfort
Oder
Kalisch
Pitschen
Militsch
Breslau
Oppeln
Cracow
Tarnow
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Troppau
Teschen
Wielicska
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Eperies
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Schemnitz
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Miskolcz
Erlau
Debretzin
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Pesth
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Szegedin
Theresienstadt
Zenta
Temesvar
Grosswardein
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Mantsch
Jokay
Tokay
Sigeth
Essek
Slatina
Agram
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BOHEMIA
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AUSTRIA
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Danube
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CHAPTER III.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

SECTION I.—THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

THE Emperor Ferdinand I. (1556–1564) and his son and successor, Maximilian II. (1564–1576), respected the rights of the Protestants of Germany and observed the Peace of Religion; but Maximilian's son and successor, the incompetent and careless Rudolf II. (1576–1612)—who had been educated at the court of Philip II. of Spain, and who was entirely under the influence of the Jesuits and given to the study of astrology—connived at religious persecution in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia. Complaints then arose of the infringement of the law and of the violation of the liberty of conscience as guaranteed by the religious treaties of Passau and Augsburg.

The incompetent and negligent Rudolf II., whose Spanish education and bigoted faith had made him zealously devoted to the Roman Catholic Church, refused to make the concessions to the Protestants of the Empire that his mild and equitable predecessors had granted. Party spirit, strife and confusion followed throughout Germany as well as in the hereditary states of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

As we have seen, when the Archbishop-Elector Gebhard of Cologne became a Lutheran, that he might marry the beautiful Countess Agnes von Mansfeld, he was deprived of his dignity. The Lutheran states of the Empire considered this action an infringement of the "spiritual proviso."

Rudolf's cousin, the Archduke Ferdinand of Styria, Carinthia and Carniola, refused his Protestant subjects the religious liberties which they had hitherto enjoyed, and caused the Lutheran churches and schools to be torn down, the Bibles to be given to the flames, and all who refused to attend the mass to be mercilessly driven out of the country.

The imperial city of Donauworth, which was mainly Protestant, was placed under the ban of the Empire for disturbing a Catholic procession, taken possession of by the impatient Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, and deprived of its Protestant worship. The complaints of the Protestant Estates were unheeded by the weak and negligent Emperor.

In order to secure their religious privileges against the encroachments of the Catholic power, many of the Protestant princes and free imperial cities of Germany formed the *Protestant Union* in 1608, at the instigation of the Elector-Palatine and of Prince Christian of Anhalt, who were encouraged by King Henry IV. of France. As the members of this Protestant Union were mainly of the German Reformed Church, the Elector of Saxony, who was a Lutheran, refused to join it, and held entirely aloof from it.

The death of Duke William of Jülich, Cleves and Berg, in 1609, without heirs, precipitated the contest between the two re-

ligious parties in Germany. The Emperor Rudolf II. conferred the reversion of the vacant duchies upon Christian II. of Saxony, but placed them under the immediate control of his cousin, Leopold of Styria, Bishop of Passau. But the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count-Palatine of Neuburg, each of whom had married a sister of the deceased Duke William, took joint possession of the duchies, in which proceeding they were aided and encouraged by King Henry IV. of France and by the Dutch Republic, while Kings James I. of England and Christian IV. of Denmark also declared themselves allies of the Protestant Union.

The Emperor Rudolf II. sent his cousin, Leopold of Styria, Bishop of Passau, with a military force to expel the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count-Palatine of Neuburg from the duchies which they had seized. Thereupon the Protestant Union formed an open alliance with Henry IV. of France by the Treaty of Halle, in January, 1610, and defeated Leopold's army.

To oppose the Protestant Union, the *Catholic League* was now formed by the Catholic princes of the Circles of Bavaria and Suabia, and by the Archbishop-Electors of Cologne, Mayence and Treves. Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria was the head of this league and the commander of its forces. The foreign allies of the Catholic League were Philip III. of Spain and Pope Paul V.

The assassination of King Henry IV. of France, in May, 1610, was a severe blow to the Protestant Union, as that confederacy had derived its chief strength from the genius of that great monarch, and it now became timid and hesitating. But the regency in France maintained the Treaty of Halle; and the lieutenant of the Archduke Leopold of Styria, after holding out several months in the hope of profiting by the assassination of Henry IV., surrendered the city of Jülich, September 4, 1610; thus leaving the disputed duchies in the possession of the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count-Palatine of Neuburg, the former holding court at Cleves, and the latter at Düsseldorf.

The Emperor Rudolf II. had alienated most of his subjects by his gloomy bigotry. Bohemia was infected with discontent. Moravia was in open revolt. Hungary and Austria came under the government of his brother Matthias by a revolutionary act signed in April, 1606, by which the Emperor's three brothers, Matthias, Albert and Maximilian, and their cousins, Ferdinand and Leopold of Styria, declared Matthias to be the head of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

After two years of fruitless negotiations the brothers appealed to arms. Matthias marched a body of troops into Bohemia, and compelled Rudolf II. to sign a treaty near Prague acknowledging him as King of Hungary in full sovereignty and immediate possession. By the consent of the Bohemian Estates, Matthias was also entitled *King-Elect* of Bohemia.

The Diets of both Hungary and Bohemia boldly asserted their religious rights; and Rudolf II. in Bohemia and Matthias in Austria were both obliged to sign charters of complete and universal toleration. The *Letter of Majesty*, which Rudolf II., as King of Bohemia, granted to the Bohemian nobles, knights and towns in 1609, conceded perfect religious freedom with the right to erect Protestant churches and schools on their own lands and on the lands of the crown.

But the Bohemians distrusted Rudolf II., held him a prisoner in the Castle of Prague in 1611, and appealed to Matthias for assistance. Matthias instantly responded to this call by entering Bohemia with an army and compelling his brother to surrender the Bohemian crown also, so that the only crown which Rudolf II. still possessed was that of the Germano-Roman Empire. The miserable existence and imbecile reign of Rudolf II. were ended by his death, early in 1612.

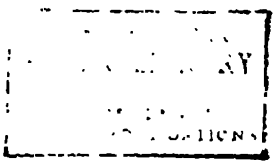
MATTHIAS was then chosen Emperor by the Electors, and was crowned at Frankfort-on-the-Main with imposing ceremonies; but he soon showed himself as incapable of governing the German Empire as his brother Rudolf II. The Protestant Union was

Turkish Nobleman—Turkish Pasha—Turkish Nobleman (16th and 17th Century).

Nobleman (1625-1640).

Royal Costumes (1625-1640).

Prince Eugene.



strengthened by the alliance of the Dutch Republic, while the Catholic League was paralyzed by dissensions in the imperial family and by the withdrawal of the three Archbishop-Electors.

Instead of the Jesuits, who had ruled Rudolph II., Cardinal Klesel controlled the court of the Emperor Matthias, who courted neither party, but was distrusted by both. Matthias's government was very feeble; and, though he was obliged to respect the rights of his Protestant subjects, he always sought to favor the efforts of the Jesuits to bring Germany back to the Roman Catholic Church, and soon convinced the Protestants that they could not expect much from him.

The imperial House of Hapsburg had fallen into such decay that the brothers of Matthias resigned all claim to the succession; and as the Emperor Matthias was old and childless he appointed his cousin, the Archduke Ferdinand of Carinthia, his successor in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia. Thenceforth Ferdinand was the real ruler of Germany, Matthias being Emperor only in name.

Ferdinand had already given evidence of the qualities of energy and ability. He desired to succeed Matthias on the imperial throne; and, as he was already known to be an inveterate foe of Protestantism, and had forced Styria, which was almost entirely Lutheran when he became its duke, to accept Roman Catholicism, the Protestants of Germany anticipated his accession to the imperial throne with dread. He was ambitious to recover for the Empire the grandeur and glory which it had possessed in mediæval times under Henry the Fowler, Otho the Great and Frederick Barbarossa; and he was wholly unscrupulous as to the means by which he sought to accomplish his ends. As he intended to make himself absolute master of Germany, so he resolved that his own religion should be the religion of the German people.

The Protestants of Bohemia were greatly alarmed for the security of their religious liberties when the Emperor Matthias caused his bigoted cousin, Ferdinand of Carinthia, to be invested with the crown of Bohemia. At length, in accordance with an imperial decree, a Protestant church which had been erected in the small town of Clostergrab was destroyed, and another which had been built in the territory of the Abbot of Braunau was closed. The Protestant Estates of Bohemia, regarding this as an infraction of the Letter of Majesty, held a meeting at Prague, and presented a remonstrance to the Emperor, who, in his reply, sharply reproved those who had made the complaint, and confirmed the decree prohibiting the building of Protestant churches on ecclesiastical territory. Enraged at this, the Protestant deputies armed themselves, and, with Count Thurn at their head, proceeded to the council-house of Prague with the design of attacking the imperial council, whom they blamed for issuing the harsh decree. After a short dispute, the two Catholic councilors, Martinitz and Slawata, and the private secretary, Fabricius, were seized and thrown out of the castle window, more than fifty-six feet, by the enraged Protestant deputies. Notwithstanding the height of their fall, and the shots that were fired after them, both councilors escaped with their lives. The Bohemians established a council of thirty noblemen to govern them, and raised an army, at the head of which they placed Count Thurn, and entered into an alliance with the Protestant party in Austria, Hungary and Germany.

The Emperor Matthias was anxious to settle the religious dispute in Bohemia peacefully; but Ferdinand II., as King of Bohemia, refused to listen to any offer of peace, as he now had an opportunity to extirpate Protestantism in his kingdom, as well as to punish his rebellious subjects. Thus, in 1618, began the great *Thirty Years' War*—the most terrible struggle that had ever afflicted Germany.

The Elector-Palatine sent the heroic Ernest von Mansfeld to the aid of the revolted Bohemians; and that general laid the foundation of his future military fame by the capture of Pilsen, one of the three

towns which alone remained to Ferdinand. The two armies which Ferdinand had sent against his rebellious Bohemian subjects were both defeated by Count Thurn, and the one commanded by the Flemish general Bucquoi was pursued into Austria and all its plunder was recovered. The Austrians refused to arm in the Emperor's service, or even to allow his reinforcements to pass through their territories to aid Ferdinand in the subjugation of his revolted Bohemian subjects.

In this emergency the Emperor Matthias died suddenly, May 20, 1619, and was succeeded in all his dominions by Ferdinand II., who thus became sovereign of Austria and Hungary, as well as of Bohemia. The victorious Bohemian army under Count Thurn quickly overran Moravia, marched into Austria and appeared before Vienna, where Ferdinand II. was holding his court.

The oppressed Protestants of Austria welcomed Count Thurn as their ally and deliverer; and their ambassadors forced their way into the imperial palace, and demanded from Ferdinand II., with threats, religious toleration and equal civil and political rights with the Catholics. Ferdinand II. was in imminent peril, but he firmly refused every concession until the arrival of Dampierre's dragoons freed him from constraint. Had Count Thurn acted with promptness and decision he might have taken Vienna and destroyed the supremacy of the imperial House of Hapsburg; but, having neglected his golden opportunity, he was obliged to raise the siege of Vienna and to retreat into Bohemia to protect Prague, which was threatened by the imperial army under Bucquoi, who had in the meantime vanquished Count Ernest von Mansfeld.

FERDINAND II. then proceeded to Frankfort-on-the-Main, where he was elected and crowned Emperor, June, 1619. On his way he visited Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, from whom he obtained a promise that the Catholic League should support the imperial cause with arms, while King Philip III. of Spain also promised him assistance. The new Emperor's intention was to exterminate Protestantism in Bohemia, and then to strike at it in other parts of the Empire. His election was therefore regarded with the most intense alarm by the entire Protestant party of Germany.

About the time of the election of Ferdinand II. as Emperor the Bohemian nation cast off its allegiance to him; and the Estates of Bohemia and Moravia elected the young Elector-Palatine, Frederick V., the head of the Protestant Union and the son-in-law of King James I. of England, as King of Bohemia. The Bohemian Estates chose him partly because they believed that his personal qualities adapted him to the position, and partly because they supposed that his father-in-law, the King of England and Scotland, would aid him to maintain his crown.

Well-disposed friends vainly warned Frederick V. against accepting the dangerous gift. His own ambition, and the persuasions of his former tutor Prince Christian of Anhalt, of the Calvinistic court preacher Scultetus, and of his haughty wife Elizabeth, who declared that she would rather starve at the table of a king than feast at that of an Elector—all these influences combined induced him to disregard the admonitions of his wisest friends, and he was accordingly crowned King of Bohemia at Prague, November 4, 1619.

Frederick's few friends were absorbed in their own affairs. His father-in-law, the King of England and Scotland, was weak and vacillating, and disinclined to war. Prince Maurice of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, though the most inveterate foe of the House of Hapsburg, was entirely occupied with his home affairs. Bethlem Gabor, Voiwode of Transylvania, though at first the most active of the Protestant allies, soon concluded a separate truce with the Emperor Ferdinand II. A Bohemian and Transylvanian army of eighty thousand men again besieged Vienna in December, 1619, but was obliged to raise the siege and to retreat, after losing two thousand men from actual starvation.

Frederick V., weak and incompetent, was utterly unfitted for so momentous a crisis; and by his thorough lack of energy and dignity proved himself his own worst enemy. He squandered his time in idle pomp and luxury, and offended the Lutherans and Hussites of Bohemia by his zeal for Calvinism and by allowing his favorite court chaplain to insult them in the rudest manner. He also alienated the Bohemian army by dismissing its able and tried leaders, Count Thurn and Count Ernest von Mansfeld, and by appointing his own favorites, Prince Christian of Anhalt and Count Hohenlohe, in their stead. Such was his lack of wisdom and prudence, when his desperate situation from the beginning required him to put forth every energy to meet the determined effort which it was certain that the Emperor Ferdinand II. would make to drive him out of Bohemia.

While the Protestant princes in and out of Germany thus held aloof from the cause of Frederick, King Philip III. of Spain, the Jesuits and the Catholic League of Germany were working actively in the interest of the Emperor Ferdinand II. By the mediation of France, a treaty of peace was concluded at Ulm between the Protestant Union and the Catholic League, giving all the advantage to the Catholic side in the war for Bohemia. Though peace was concluded between all the German states, both parties permitted the passage of troops across their territories into Bohemia; and, the "Archdukes" of the Netherlands being exempted from the peace, there was no obstacle to their Spanish forces invading the Palatinate.

In August, 1620, the Emperor's powerful ally, Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, led the army of the Catholic League into Bohemia, where he was joined by Count Bucquoi, their combined armies then numbering thirty-two thousand men, while Frederick's force did not consist of more then twenty thousand. Maximilian's next in command was Count Tilly, the Netherlander, a ferocious character, whose place among the Catholic generals of Germany in the Thirty Years' War was second only to that of Albert von Wallenstein, the great general of the Emperor Ferdinand II.

In the meantime the Spaniards under Spinola were devastating the Rhine lands. The Elector of Saxony occupied Lusatia for the Emperor, thus cutting off Frederick's hope of relief from that quarter; and King Sigismund III. of Poland sent eight thousand Cossacks as auxiliaries for the imperial army.

Frederick might even yet have saved his Bohemian kingdom had he acted with firmness and good management; but he alienated his best general, Count Ernest von Mansfeld, by his ill-treatment; and on November 7, 1620, Frederick's army, under Prince Christian of Anhalt, was attacked and defeated by the army of the Catholic League under Count Tilly in the battle of Weissenberg, near Prague. In consequence of this defeat, Frederick and his queen were obliged to flee from Bohemia, whose people they had offended and therefore could not trust; and, as they could not return to their rightful sovereignty, the Palatinate, which was then in the possession of the Spaniards, they took refuge in Silesia, and afterward in Holland, pursued by the imperial sentence of outlawry which deprived Frederick of his hereditary dominions, the Palatinate.

Bohemia and Moravia soon submitted to the power of Austria, and the unfortunate Bohemians were cruelly punished for their rebellion. The Emperor Ferdinand II. cut the Letter of Majesty to pieces with his own hand, and revoked all acts of toleration, while the tombs of the Bohemian Reformers were destroyed and their bones burned. Twenty-seven of the Bohemian nobles were executed; the property of the others was confiscated and bestowed on the Jesuits and other Catholic orders; the Protestant clergymen were gradually banished from Bohemia; and finally it was decreed that no subject who would not conform to the Catholic creed would be tolerated, in consequence of which harsh measure thirty thousand Protestant families left their homes in

Bohemia, and took up their abode in the Protestant states of Saxony, Hanover and Brandenburg.

Multitudes of Bohemians who remained in their native land held fast to the Protestant faith in secret; and when, after the lapse of a century and a half, religious freedom was again proclaimed in Bohemia the government was surprised by the numbers who declared themselves Protestants.

The wanton cruelty of the Emperor Ferdinand II. entirely changed the character of Bohemia; and that country ceased to be the seat of learning and intelligence, while its commerce was destroyed by the murder and exile of its Protestant inhabitants.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. next extirpated Protestantism in Upper and Lower Austria in the same barbarous manner as he exterminated it in Bohemia. His cruelty caused the Peasant Revolt of 1626, which was suppressed with extreme difficuly by the united forces of Austria and Bavaria.

Count Ernest von Mansfeld, Prince Christian of Anhalt and the Margrave George Frederick of Baden-Durlach took the field in the cause of the outlawed Frederick of the Palatinate, and of the Protestant religion. Mansfeld plundered Alsace and desolated the Catholic bishoprics and monasteries on the Main and the Rhine, and, in conjunction with George Frederick of Baden-Durlach, gained the battle of Wiesloch, or Mingolsheim, in April, 1622, over the Bavarian general, Tilly, who had been sent into the Palatinate of the Rhine for the purpose of subduing the chief of the Protestant Union; but George Frederick was soon afterward defeated by Tilly in the battle of Wimpfen, May 6, 1622; and on the 20th of June of the same year Christian of Anhalt was also defeated by Tilly near Höchst. Mansfeld and Christian then marched into the Netherlands to procure assistance from England; while Tilly took Manheim, Heidelberg and Frankenthal by storm, and committed the most frightful ravages.

The Heidelberg library, then one of the most valuable in the world for its rare collection of manuscripts, was partly used as a substitute for straw to stable the horses of Tilly's cavalry; but a part was sent by Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria to the Pope, and was known among the collections of the Vatican for two centuries as the *Palatine Library.*

The Protestant Union was forced to disband its forces, and its organization was dissolved in 1622 amid universal contempt. It seemed to most observers that the Emperor Ferdinand II. had triumphed over all his foes and that he had established his power beyond dispute; but the Thirty Years' War had only really begun.

In 1623 the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon conferred the Palatinate and the title of Elector on Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, through the influence of his ally, the Emperor Ferdinand II. This proceeding, and the evident intention of Ferdinand II. to attempt the suppression of Protestantism throughout Germany, blasted the hopes for a speedy termination of the destructive civil and religious war.

England, Holland and Denmark now lent their assistance to the Protestant cause in Germany; and the Protestant towns of Lower Saxony took up arms in defense of their religion, and formed an alliance with King Christian IV. of Denmark, whom they invested with the chief command of their armies. Those valiant Protestant leaders, Ernest von Mansfeld, Christian of Anhalt and George Frederick of Baden-Durlach, again appeared in the field.

Thus far the war against the German Protestants had been carried on almost entirely by the Catholic League; but, as the struggle had assumed greater proportions, the League demanded supplies of troops from the Emperor. Ferdinand himself, who was jealous of the power and influence of Maximilian of Bavaria, resolved to raise an army of his own. Albert von Wallenstein, a wealthy Bohemian nobleman, offered to support an army of fifty thousand men, at his own expense, for the Emperor, on condition of being allowed the unlimited command of them, and of indemnifying himself by the plunder of the conquered lands.

After some hesitation, Ferdinand accepted the offer of the daring adventurer, made him governor of Friedland, elevated him to the dignity of an Elector of the German Empire, and afterward created him Duke of Friedland and a prince of the Empire.

Wallenstein was a Bohemian by birth, but a German by descent, and had been carefully educated at the University of Padua, in Northern Italy, then one of the most renowned seats of learning in Europe. There he imbibed a belief in astrology, which had great influence on his subsequent life. In consequence of his infamous bargain with the Emperor Ferdinand II., he was at the head of an army of as desperate troops as ever took the field. He soon proved himself a great general, and became one of the famous heroes of the Thirty Years' War, while also acquiring the reputation of being one of the most unscrupulous plunderers of history.

Northern Germany now became the chief theater of the war; and the army of the Catholic League under Tilly, and that of the Emperor under Wallenstein, soon broke the power of the Protestants in that quarter. The campaign of 1625 began with the advance of King Christian IV. of Denmark from the Elbe to the Weser; but that monarch was defeated by Tilly near Hanover, thus ending the campaign decidedly in favor of the imperialists.

In the spring of 1626 Wallenstein marched northward with his plundering horde, but fortunately for Germany a jealousy between Tilly and Wallenstein prevented them from acting in concert. Wallenstein pursued Mansfeld and defeated him at the bridge of Dessau; after which Mansfeld marched into Hungary, and died in Bosnia while attempting to make his way to the Netherlands. Christian of Anhalt died the same year. In the meantime Tilly took Münden, in Hanover, prevented King Christian IV. of Denmark from joining the Saxon dukes, and finally defeated him with great loss at the Castle of Lutter, near the Barenberg, August 27, 1626.

In the spring of 1627 Wallenstein again advanced northward, his plundering army being preceded and accompanied by bands of gypsies, who concealed themselves in the woods and pillaged farms and houses whenever they had the opportunity. King Christian IV. of Denmark was compelled to retreat into his own dominions. His ally, the Duke of Mecklenburg, was driven from his territories, which were immediately seized by Wallenstein.

Schleswig, Holstein and the peninsula of Jutland were conquered and frightfully ravaged by the Catholic armies of Germany under Tilly and Wallenstein; and the King of Denmark was obliged to seek refuge in his islands. The Protestant German states of Pomerania and Brandenburg were forced to receive imperial garrisons, and the whole North of Germany lay prostrate before the power of the Emperor and the Catholic League.

Wallenstein was anxious to win over the Hanseatic towns to the imperial side, so that Austria might be as powerful by sea as by land; and he endeavored to effect this result partly by force and partly by bribery.

In his desperation and despair, King Christian IV. of Denmark looked to King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden for aid; but the Swedish monarch was still engaged in his long war with King Sigismund III. of Poland, and could therefore render no other assistance to the Danish king than to prevent the Polish sovereign from sending an army to aid the Emperor Ferdinand II.

Wallenstein had great respect for the military talents of the Swedish king, and sought to draw him into a treaty for the partition of the Danish dominions, by which Sweden would receive Norway and the province of Schonen, while Denmark and the control of the Baltic would pass to the Emperor Ferdinand II. or to Wallenstein himself. But Gustavus Adolphus rejected Wallenstein's overtures, and sent aid to the Danish monarch as soon as he was able to do so.

The heroic inhabitants of the city of Stralsund, in Pomerania, refused to receive an imperial garrison. Wallenstein

marched against the city, and swore that he would take it if it were bound to heaven with chains; but all his assaults were gallantly repulsed by the inhabitants; and after a siege of ten weeks, during which he lost twelve thousand men, Wallenstein was obliged to relinquish the siege and to retire.

At the same time Tilly was weakened by the withdrawal of some of his troops to Italy; and he was successively driven from Jutland, Holstein and Schleswig by King Christian IV. of Denmark.

The recent reverses of Tilly and Wallenstein in the North induced the Emperor of Germany to conclude a treaty of peace with the King of Denmark. By the Peace of Lübeck, in May, 1629, Christian IV. recovered the territories which had been conquered from him; but he was required to abandon the cause of the German Protestants, and to take no part in German affairs except in his capacity of Duke of Holstein.

Since the religious Peace of Passau, in 1552, a vast amount of ecclesiastical property had come into the possession of the German Protestants. This property consisted of two archbishoprics, two bishoprics and other ecclesiastical lands. The question relating to these ecclesiastical possessions was one of the most difficult raised by the Reformation. Much of this land had been bestowed centuries before under conditions of tribute and obedience to the Roman Catholic Church; but Protestant princes of Germany, as well as the heirs and descendants of donors, claimed their right to control the disposition of benefices.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic party, encouraged by their recent triumph, now resolved upon the suppression of the Protestand religion, and the full reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism throughout Germany; and, instigated by the Archbishop-Electors and by the Society of the Jesuits, the Emperor issued an *Edict of Restitution*, in March, 1629, which required the Protestants to restore all ecclesiastical property which had been taken from the Catholics since the Peace of Passau. Two of the most important bishoprics thus held —those of Halberstadt and Magdeburg— were bestowed upon the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Leopold of Styria, who already held a plurality of sees. In many of the Protestant cities of Germany the churches were closed, and private worship was forbidden.

As the execution of the Edict of Restitution would wrest many bishoprics and almost all the foundations and abbeys in the North of Germany from those who then held them, it filled the entire Protestant portion of the Empire with terror and alarm, and prolonged the destructive civil and religious war which had already afflicted Germany for little more than a decade. Many of the Protestant princes and cities of Germany violently resisted the execution of the harsh edict, and the Emperor found himself obliged to employ military force to carry out his designs, but his army was no longer commanded by Wallenstein.

Wallenstein's barbarous conduct in spreading ruin and desolation wherever he appeared aroused the indignation of both Catholics and Protestants; and the whole body of the German princes in the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon, with Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria at their head, demanded the removal of Wallenstein from the chief command of the imperial army. The Duke of Bavaria was enraged by Wallenstein's presumption and by his ascendency over the Emperor Ferdinand II., while the other princes of the Catholic League were also offended by his haughty assumption of sovereign state and dignity. Fearing to offend the princes of the Catholic League, the Emperor yielded to the unanimous voice of the princes and people of Germany, removed Wallenstein, and appointed Tilly to the chief command of his army. Wallenstein retired to his duchy of Friedland, where he lived in the enjoyment of immense wealth, until he should again be called upon to assume the chief command of the imperial army.

The unfortunate Protestants of Germany were now compelled to yield before the

superior power of Austria and Bavaria; but they soon found a deliverer in the valiant Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, whom the intriguing and unprincipled French Prime-Minister, Cardinal Richelieu, the enemy of the House of Hapsburg, had induced to assist the German Protestants in their war against their Emperor.

France, under Cardinal Richelieu, held the balance in European affairs; and that great statesman and diplomat gladly saw the imperial power weakened by religious dissensions in Germany, though his position as a cardinal and as the counselor of a Catholic king prevented him from waging open war in the Protestant interest; but he negotiated a truce between Sweden and Poland which left Gustavus Adolphus free to prosecute his designs in Germany, and he offered that king the subsidies and close alliance of France.

Gustavus Adolphus at first rejected the offers of Cardinal Richelieu; but a few months afterward a treaty was signed at Beerwald in Neumark, binding France and Sweden to mutual aid and coöperation for five years. The most prudent of the Swedish Council admitted the necessity of the war. Wallenstein's late movements toward the supreme control of the Baltic menaced Swedish commerce; while the support which the Emperor Ferdinand II. had given to King Sigismund III. of Poland in his claim to the Swedish crown; and the contemptuous and even violent expulsion of the Swedish envoys from the Congress of Lübeck, were flagrant insults to the Swedish king.

Convinced of the justice of his cause, and animated by his zeal for the Protestant faith and by his desire to avenge private injuries, Gustavus Adolphus "set his house in order like a dying man." Leaving the government of Sweden in charge of a Council of Regency, and commending his daughter and heiress, Christina, then only four years of age, to the care and fidelity of the Estates of Sweden, he sailed from his kingdom, which he never again beheld, and landed on the island of Rugen, on the coast of Pomerania, June 24, 1630, with an army of fifteen thousand highly disciplined and sober, God-fearing men, who assembled around their chaplains twice a day, and were not permitted by their pious king to devastate any of the territory through which they marched.

Gustavus Adolphus landed in Germany at an auspicious moment, when Wallenstein had just been dismissed from the imperial service, and when nearly all his officers had relinquished their commands in disgust. When Tilly superseded Wallenstein in the imperial command he found himself at the head of a weakened and discontented army.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. paid little attention to the Swedish invasion of his dominions; and the imperial party generally predicted that the "Snow-King," as they called Gustavus Adolphus, would never dare venture far from the Baltic shores. But the ridicule of the court of Vienna was soon changed to surprise and consternation when the Swedish king advanced steadily into the interior, and captured the fortresses of Pomerania and Mecklenburg in quick succession.

Vainly did the imperial generals lay waste the country through which the Swedes advanced, even burning towns and villages to prevent the Swedes from obtaining food and shelter therein. The Swedish army continued its advance; and its perfect order and discipline won the hearts of the inhabitants, who were surprised that the invading army respected their rights, so that they looked upon the Swedes as their rescuers and deliverers.

Many of the Protestant princes of Germany, fearing the vengeance of their Emperor, and jealous of the foreign monarch who had espoused their cause, at first refused to coöperate with the King of Sweden, and at the Diet of Leipsic they resolved to observe neutrality. Gustavus Adolphus compelled the Duke of Pomerania to enter into an alliance with him; but the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg refused permission to the Swedes to march through their territories, and Gustavus Adolphus was so long delayed by negotiations on

this subject that he was obliged to leave the Protestant city of Magdeburg to its fate.

The Elector of Saxony claimed the leadership of the German Protestants by hereditary right—a post which he lacked the ability to maintain. The Elector of Brandenburg, though the Swedish king's brother-in-law, was actuated more by jealousy than by any enlightened regard for the interests of his subjects.

Magdeburg, the ancient seat of an archbishopric, had become one of the first and firmest strongholds of the Reformation under princes of the Brandenburg Hohenzollern dynasty. It had resisted the Edict of Restitution and the investiture of Leopold of Styria, the Emperor's brother, as its bishop; and in 1629 the imperial army bombarded its walls for seven months. Magdeburg fell into the possession of the imperial army under Tilly, May 16, 1631, after a siege of six weeks, during which many fierce assaults had been gallantly repulsed. The devoted city was dreadfully punished. The entire city, except the Cathedral and a few houses in its vicinity, was burned to the ground; and thirty thousand of its inhabitants were brutally massacred by barbarous Croats and equally cruel Walloons.

Both armies were largely reinforced; and Tilly marched into Saxony at the head of one hundred and fifty thousand men, ravaging and plundering with his accustomed ferocity. When the Elector of Saxony was informed that two hundred of his villages were in flames he found himself under the necessity to conclude an alliance with King Gustavus Adolphus, joining him with eighteen thousand troops.

The King of Sweden marched to meet Tilly; and a sanguinary battle was fought at the village of Breitenfeld, near Leipsic, September 7, 1631, in which the united forces of the Swedes and the Saxons gained a most brilliant victory. This imperial defeat disclosed the long hidden decline of the Austrian power. The rout of Tilly's army was so complete that scarcely two thousand troops could be rallied for the retreat to Halle, while all his artillery fell into the possession of the victorious army of the Swedes.

The battle of Breitenfeld placed Germany at the mercy of the victorious Gustavus Adolphus, and opened to him the road to Vienna, which he might have captured, and thus ended the war by a bold stroke directly at the heart of his imperial foe; but he had higher views of his own than those of conquest, and believed that he could better secure the religious freedom of Germany by entering the territories of the Catholic League, in every state of which a small minority were still struggling for liberty of conscience. Leaving the invasion of Austria and Bohemia to the Elector of Saxony, Gustavus Adolphus marched through Franconia to the Rhine, taking all the important towns and fortresses with surprising rapidity, many of them welcoming him as a deliverer and opening their gates at his approach. The Spanish garrison of Mayence surrendered to him December 13, 1631, and became the Swedish head-quarters.

Thus at Christmas, A. D. 1631, the "Snow-King" occupied a firm position on the Rhine, attended by his queen, his Chancellor, and a brilliant court of princes and ambassadors. But his unexpected approach to the French frontier had alarmed the suspicions of King Louis XIII. of France, while Cardinal Richelieu began to fear the decline of his own influence in the German Empire. The Archbishop-Elector of Treves was induced to decline the Swedish king's protection and to admit a French garrison into the impregnable fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, thus ceding to France a coveted foothold on the Rhine, which was not soon relinquished. Gustavus Adolphus gave the French no real ground for their suspicions, as he started on his return march to Franconia as soon as he had driven the Spaniards out of the Palatinate.

When he arrived at Nuremberg he was greeted with acclamations of joy as the protector of religious liberty in Germany. Thence he marched to the Danube, crossed that stream, captured the city of Donauworth, and pursued the imperial army

under Tilly to the river Lech, which separated the Swedish king from Bavaria.

The Lech was a narrow stream, but deep, rapid, and then swollen by the melting of the winter snows. Tilly's army occupied a strongly fortified camp on the Bavarian side. The Swedish council of war declared that his position was too strong to be attacked; but King Gustavus Adolphus had personally reconnoitered the entire region, and had his own plan of operations, which resulted in remarkable success. After placing his artillery at a bend of the river where the height of the bank gave him a great advantage over the imperial army, he ordered a terrific cannonade upon Tilly's camp. Under cover of the smoke and din of this assault upon the enemy's lines, he caused a bridge to be constructed, while the interference of the Bavarians was prevented by the dreadful precision with which the Swedish cannon swept the opposite bank of the river. Tilly was mortally wounded by a cannonball; and Duke Maximilian I. retired to Ingolstadt, abandoning the defense of his frontier.

The wounded Tilly died a fortnight later at Ingolstadt, his mind being occupied with military affairs to the very moment of his death. The entire soul of this hero was filled with war. He was simple and moderate in his style of living, and despised wealth and possessions, as well as titles and dignities. He knew no more of sensual enjoyment than of high cultivation or nobility of mind.

After occupying Augsburg, and there restoring the Lutheran form of worship, Gustavus Adolphus marched into Bavaria, and entered Munich, its capital, which had been deserted by Duke Maximilian's court. The only punishment which the triumphant Swedish king inflicted upon the trembling Bavarians was a fine and the seizure of one hundred and forty concealed cannons.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. was now in a desperate situation, as he was threatened with the loss of all that he had gained during the first twelve years of the war. In his extremity the humiliated Emperor again had recourse to the services of Wallenstein, who had secretly aided the Saxons to conquer Bohemia for the purpose of forcing the ungrateful Emperor to recall him to the command of the imperial army. When the Emperor appealed to Wallenstein the latter feigned a haughty reluctance to resume a command of which he had been deprived unjustly, and only consented to accept the command upon conditions which were both insulting and dangerous to the Emperor. Wallenstein demanded that he should be invested with absolute power; that no prince of the Austrian House of Hapsburg should be with the army; that the Emperor should not make any military appointments, and not give any orders to the army, under any circumstances; and that Wallenstein should have the disposal of all confiscated estates.

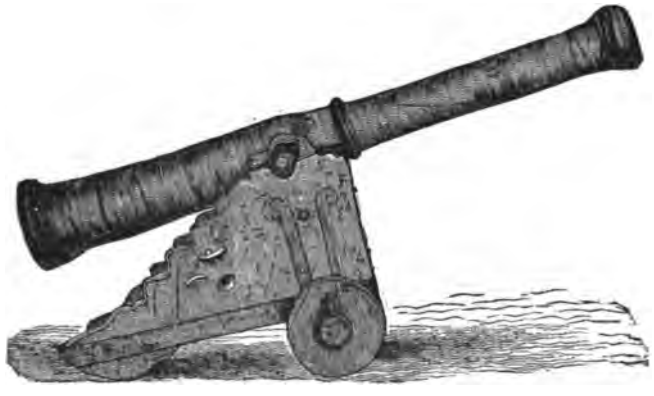
Wallenstein had fully resolved upon his future course. His motives were ambition and revenge, and he accepted the imperial commission only that he might betray his ungrateful sovereign, whose ruin he intended to make the means of establishing his own power. He intended to drive the Swedes from Germany, after which he meant to make himself master of the Empire, and finally to seize the imperial crown.

The magic of Wallenstein's name caused large numbers of troops to rally to his standard, and he was soon at the head of an army of forty thousand men, with which he drove the Saxons out of Bohemia. The Emperor Ferdinand II. vainly implored Wallenstein for a few regiments to relieve Bavaria and thus save Austria from invasion by the victorious Swedes. Wallenstein could not forego the opportunity of revenge upon his inveterate enemy, Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, who had been responsible for his previous dismissal from the command of the imperial army.

Finally Wallenstein consented to a formal reconciliation with Duke Maximilian I. on condition of having the absolute command of the Bavarian forces, which he united with his own army; after which he marched against Gustavus Adolphus, who

had strongly intrenched his army at Nuremberg. Wallenstein, at the head of sixty thousand imperialists, formed a fortified camp within a few miles of the Swedish lines. For two months the two armies were watching each other, during which both suffered dreadfully from hunger and pestilence. After failing to draw Wallenstein into battle on equal ground, Gustavus Adolphus stormed the imperial camp, but was repulsed with heavy loss.

Gustavus Adolphus soon retired into Bavaria, and Wallenstein gladly saw the Swedish army engaged in humbling the Bavarian duke, while the imperial general himself turned to pursue his designs against Saxony. About the same time a revolt of the Austrian peasants afforded the Swedish king an excellent opportunity to invade Austria and march upon Vienna, and thus make the Emperor tremble in his own capital; but, upon being informed that Wallenstein was pressing the Saxons very hard, he sacrificed his own interests to those of his ally, the Elector of Saxony, by a rapid march northward.



OLD SWEDISH LEATHER CANNON.

After collecting reinforcements in Franconia, Gustavus Adolphus arrived at Lutzen on the evening of November 15, 1632, where Wallenstein already held a strong position, ready to await the Swedish king's attack. The next morning the entire Swedish army, kneeling, joined in their king's religious devotions, after which they broke forth in singing Luther's celebrated hymn: "*Eine feste Burg ist unser Gott.*" The two greatest generals then in Europe now for the first time encountered each other on equal terms, and every soldier felt that the fate of the German Empire hung upon the issue.

The impetuous valor of the Swedes put three imperial brigades to flight, but Wallenstein's word and example were sufficient to rally them and to lead them anew to the contest. A colonel of Swedish cavalry having been wounded, King Gustavus Adolphus took command in person, and charged the imperialists in advance of his whole army, during which he was mortally wounded. His troops were then led by Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, and were inspired by a fury of revenge. After nine hours' stubborn fighting, during which Pappenheim, the leader of the imperial cavalry, was also mortally wounded, Wallenstein retired from the field, leaving his artillery in the possession of the Swedes, and fled in dismay from Saxony into Bohemia with his shattered army.

Such was the memorable battle of Lutzen, in which the Swedes gained a most glorious victory, but which was dearly purchased with the death of the heroic and valiant Gustavus Adolphus, "the Lion of the North." The Swedes sent the body of their illustrious king, which was frightfully disfigured by the hoofs of horses, to his native land for interment.

The death of Gustavus Adolphus was received with the most intense grief throughout Protestant Christendom. The great champion of Protestantism had been stricken down. Never was a king more beloved by his subjects. No unworthy act sullied the brightness of his fame. A German poet has celebrated him as the "first and only *just* conqueror that the world has produced."

In March, 1633, a congress of the Protestant states of Germany, and the ambassadors of France, England, Holland and Sweden, was held at Heilbronn to decide upon what action to take in regard to the future. This congress conferred upon Count

Axel Oxenstiern, who was administering the government of Sweden as regent during the minority of the infant Queen Christina, the same dignity and powers that the valiant Gustavus Adolphus had held as protector of the Protestant interests of Germany in opposition to the Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic League.

As the unfortunate Elector-Palatine, Frederick V., had died since the battle of Lutzen, the Congress of Heilbronn provided for his children by securing to them under the guardianship of their uncle, Louis Philip, the territories of the Palatinate which King Gustavus Adolphus had conquered from the imperialists. The bishoprics of Bamberg and Wurzburg were erected into the duchy of Franconia, and conferred, as a fief of the Swedish crown, upon Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. During that year's campaign Bernhard captured the important city of Ratisbon, thus obtaining command of the Danube.

After the death of Gustavus Adolphus the Protestant forces in Germany were under the command of the Swedish general Horn and Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. Wallenstein displayed scarcely any of his accustomed vigor during the campaign of 1633, and gave great dissatisfaction to the Emperor Ferdinand II., who had already begun to suspect the fidelity of his great general. It became more and more apparent with the progress of time that Wallenstein was seeking to make himself King of Bohemia; and his enemies, who constituted a powerful party at court and in the army, demanded his dismissal.

Wallenstein was accused of a design to enter into an alliance with Sweden for the accomplishment of his designs upon the crown of Bohemia; and for this reason he liberated the captive Count Thurn, the hereditary enemy of the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Emperor Ferdinand II., by the advice of the friends of Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria and the Jesuits, who hated Wallenstein because of the freedom of his religious views, resolved upon the destruction of the great general.

When Wallenstein was informed by spies concerning the decision of the imperial council, he assembled his leading officers at Pilsen, and induced them to sign a written promise to stand by him to the last drop of their blood. Thus relying upon the fidelity of his army, Wallenstein felt prepared for a rupture with the Emperor. As Ferdinand II. was afraid to proceed to open hostilities with his great general, he sought to accomplish his end by treachery, and kept up a friendly correspondence with Wallenstein to the last, even after orders had been secretly given releasing the officers and troops from their obedience to their general, and requiring him to be brought to the Emperor dead or alive.

The Italian general Piccolomini, whom Wallenstein considered his best friend, acted under secret orders from the Emperor Ferdinand II. to incite the soldiery against the powerful general and to lay snares for his life. The Emperor then pronounced Wallenstein's deposition in Bohemia; whereupon the great general marched towards Eger with his most devoted troops, in order to be nearer a juncture with the Swedes.

Before Wallenstein could join the Swedes he was assassinated, February 25, 1634, in his own head-quarters at Eger by a band of assassins, with the Irishman Butler at their head, sent for that purpose by the Emperor Ferdinand II. Wallenstein's faithful adherents and confederates—Illo, Terska and Kinsky—were also assassinated. The assassins were rewarded with honors, dignities and wealth, and received the confiscated estates of the murdered general.

Thus died Albert von Wallenstein, the terror of the German people and the idol of the German soldiery. He possessed an audacious and enterprising spirit, a commanding character, and a boundless pride and ambition. When his tall form, clothed in a scarlet mantle, and with a red feather in his hat, was seen pacing through his camp his soldiers were seized with a strange awe.

However treasonable may have been Wallenstein's designs, the Emperor Ferdinand II. was under the most sacred obligations

of gratitude to the great general for twice preserving his crown when all seemed lost. The Emperor publicly showed his gratitude to the general whom he had thus violently and illegally put to death by ordering three thousand masses to be sung for the repose of the illustrious victim's soul.

King Ferdinand III. of Bohemia—the son of the Emperor Ferdinand II.—received the chief command of the imperial army, which took Donauworth and menaced Nördlingen in the summer of 1634. The Swedish general Horn had been sent with a detachment to guard the passes of the Tyrolese Alps, but was compelled to rejoin Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar and to leave the way open for the advance of the Cardinal Infant Ferdinand of Spain with an army from Italy. This warlike prelate was regarded as the first prince of the Spanish Hapsburgs since Don John of Austria who had possessed any military talent.

This Cardinal Infant Ferdinand of Spain joined King Ferdinand III. of Bohemia under the walls of Nördlingen, where a great battle was fought August 26 and 27, 1634, ending in the total defeat and rout of the Swedish and Saxon forces under General Horn and Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. Horn and three other generals were taken prisoners, along with six thousand of their troops. Twelve thousand of the vanquished army lay dead upon the sanguinary field; while eighty cannon, three hundred standards and four thousand wagons became the spoils of the victorious imperialists and their Spanish allies.

The fair prospect for a general peace was blasted by the intervention of France, whose renowned Prime Minister, Cardinal Richelieu, although a prince of the Catholic Church, was resolved to humble the proud House of Hapsburg. He had for a long time watched the struggle; and he now decided to intervene actively, for which purpose he negotiated a treaty with the Swedish Chancellor, Count Axel Oxenstiern, by which he agreed to assist Sweden with French money and French troops, in return for Sweden's consenting to the annexation of Alsace to France. Lorraine had already been forcibly annexed to the same kingdom, and a "Parliament of Austrasia" was duly instituted at Metz. The conquered duke, Charles of Lorraine, abdicated in favor of his brother, the Cardinal Nicholas Francis, entered the imperial service, and became a valiant and successful general.

During the same year (1634) France concluded a close alliance with Prince Frederick Henry of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, for a simultaneous invasion of the Spanish Netherlands by the French from the south and by the Dutch from the north. The Spanish Netherlands were invited to constitute themselves an independent state, ceding a considerable extent of territory on each side to each of the two neighboring nations by whose assistance the liberation of those provinces from Spanish rule was to be effected. If the Spanish Netherlands rejected this offer of deliverance they were to be conquered and then divided between France and Holland.

The Spaniards had already wrested Philipsburg, on the Rhine, from the French; and in March, 1635, they also seized Treves, destroyed its French garrison, and carried the Archbishop-Elector a prisoner to Antwerp. As the Cardinal Infant Ferdinand refused to surrender this spiritual prince upon the demand of Cardinal Richelieu, a French herald at Brussels declared war against Spain. The Archbishop-Elector was already under the ban of the German Empire for having admitted a French garrison into the impregnable fortress of Ehrenbreitstein; and he was soon taken to Vienna, where he was detained in captivity for ten years.

The Elector John George of Saxony had long been wavering, and after the battle of Nördlingen he decided to make peace with the Emperor Ferdinand II. Nearly all the German states ultimately acceded to the Peace of Prague, in May, 1635, though they united in censuring the base ingratitude of the Elector of Saxony, in the defense of whose dominions the heroic King Gustavus Adolphus had lost his life on the bloody field

of Lutzen, but who now engaged by a special article of the Treaty of Prague to aid in driving the Swedes from Germany.

By the Treaty of Prague the Emperor Ferdinand II. made many concessions concerning church property and freedom of worship, except in Bohemia, which kingdom was now declared to be hereditary in the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Swedes rejected the treaty, and their own propositions were disregarded by the imperial court. Thus the Alliance of Heilbronn was formally dissolved by the action of the German princes in renouncing the Swedish alliance by the Peace of Prague.

Germany was thus for the time pacified, and the Italian general Piccolomini entered the Spanish Netherlands with twenty thousand imperial troops; while the imperial army of the Rhine drove the French from that river and also from the Neckar, the Moselle and the Saar. The French operations were no more successful in the Spanish Netherlands and the Duchy of Milan; and in 1636 the German imperial and Spanish armies invaded France on four sides, but accomplished very little. Bands of Croats and Hungarians ravaged the North of France and alarmed Paris, where loud complaints were now made against Cardinal Richelieu; but the great Prime Minister quickly raised an army which dislodged the imperial troops from Corbie and drove them from France.

In Germany, Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar was performing brilliant military achievements in the service of France in the Rhineland; while the Swedes under Banner defeated the faithless Elector John George of Saxony at Dömitz and still more decisively at Wittstock in 1636.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. died at Vienna in February, 1637, and was succeeded on the imperial throne by his son FERDINAND III. The new Emperor was naturally more tolerant than his father, and was less influenced by the Jesuits and the Spaniards. He had also personally witnessed the misery and desolation which the long war had brought upon Germany, and was sincerely desirous of peace; but the war went on vigorously.

Ferdinand II. had commenced the war to exterminate Protestantism and to make the imperial power absolute in Germany. Ferdinand III. continued the struggle to save what he could of the Empire from conquest by the Swedes and the French. As he failed in his efforts for peace, he prosecuted the war with vigor; and the Swedish general Banner was forced to raise the siege of Leipsic and to retreat into Pomerania by a series of romantic adventures and escapes.

After the great heroes of the Thirty Years' War—Tilly, Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus—had passed away, the great conflict had entirely lost its religious character, and it was now a defensive struggle on the part of the German Empire against French and Swedish conquest.

The struggle lasted eleven years after the accession of Ferdinand III. The admirable discipline which Gustavus Adolphus had maintained among the Swedes had passsd away with him, and the Swedish troops became noted for their excesses and their cruelties. Their commander, Banner, who was himself an unmitigated profligate, declared that it would be no wonder if the earth should open and swallow up his army for its crimes and cruelties.

The German armies on both sides were without a commissariat, and usually without pay, subsisting at the expense of the miserable inhabitants of the districts which they visited. Each army systematically destroyed the produce of the soil for the purpose of starving its enemies. The recklessness with which the wretched inhabitants were plundered and their property destroyed brought starvation and all its horrors to thousands of innocent women and children.

During the last period of the Thirty Years' War—the period following the Peace of Prague—all the principal European states were more or less actively occupied. Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, in the service of France, captured several fortresses on the Upper Rhine, and won a great victory over the German imperial army at Rheinfeld,

March 3, 1638. He also forced the strong fortress of Breisach to surrender, in December, 1638, after a siege of six months. He entertained the project of obtaining Alsace as an independent sovereignty. But Duke Bernhard died in the flower of life and in the zenith of his brilliant career, and all his conquests on the Upper Rhine were absorbed by France.

The Count Harcourt, the French commander in Italy, defeated the German imperial troops in Piedmont, overran that country, and captured Turin in September, 1640, after a spirited siege of over four months. In the Spanish Netherlands the French drove the Spaniards from Artois in 1640, after capturing Arras, its capital, and annexed that valuable province to France.

The young Elector-Palatine was aided by his two nearest relatives, King Charles I. of England and Scotland, and the Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic; but the Dutch army sent to his aid was defeated by the German imperial army under Hatzfeld; and his younger brother, Prince Rupert, afterward so unhappily famous in the civil war in England, was taken prisoner and detained in captivity in Germany for some years.

In the meantime the Spaniards were occupied with formidable revolts in the provinces of Catalonia and Biscay; while Portugal also rebelled and reëstablished its independence under the Duke of Braganza, who became King John IV., A. D. 1640. The Spaniards were also unfortunate at sea. Their fleet was destroyed by the French in Guetaria in 1638; and in 1639 the most powerful Spanish naval armament that had been sent forth since the Invincible Armada had menaced England was also annihilated by the Dutch.

In 1637 the Swedes more than retrieved their losses in Germany. In 1638 they defeated the German imperial army at Elsterburg, and the Saxons at Chemnitz. They followed up their victories by capturing and burning Pirna, and ravaging Bohemia with fire and sword, reducing more than a thousand castles, hamlets and villages in that country to ashes. The campaigns of 1639 and 1640 were sharply contested, and the results were evenly balanced between the two parties. In January, 1641, the Swedish army under Banner, by a quick and masterly march through the Upper Palatinate, suddenly appeared before Ratisbon, where the Imperial Diet was in session. The Emperor narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, but the city was saved from capture by a thaw, which prevented the Swedes from crossing the Danube.

Banner died in May, 1641, and was succeeded in the command of the Swedish army in Germany by General Torstenson, the most talented of the lieutenants of Gustavus Adolphus. He transferred the seat of war to the Austrian dominions, which had thus far escaped the general devastation and ruin. He captured Glogau, Schweidnitz and Olmutz, and even excited alarm in Vienna. He besieged Leipsic, and defeated the Archduke Leopold, who was advancing with an army to the relief of that city, on the very site of the great and decisive victory of Gustavus Adolphus over Tilly in 1631. Leipsic capitulated three weeks afterward, and only escaped pillage by the payment of an immense contribution.

The Swedish army continued its operations throughout the rigorous winter which followed, and attacked Freiberg, which the German imperial army was obliged to defend; but no sooner had Torstenson raised the siege of that town than, by a quick and unexpected movement, he marched through Bohemia and relieved Olmutz, which was closely pressed by the imperialists. He then established a fortified camp near Olmutz, commanding the whole of Moravia; and his detachments again extended their ravages to the walls of Vienna.

On the Lower Rhine the French had in the meantime won a victory at Kempen, which opened to them the entire Electorate of Cologne and the duchy of Jülich, A. D. 1642. In that year King Louis XIII., as an ally of the revolted Catalans, besieged and took Perpignan, the capital of the prov-

ince of Roussillon, which was conquered and annexed to France, thus extending the French frontier on the south to the Pyrenees.

Cardinal Richelieu's death, in December, 1642, was followed by that of King Louis XIII., in May, 1643; and the latter's widow, Anne of Austria, became regent for his four-year-old son and successor, Louis XIV.; while Cardinal Mazarin, who became her Prime Minister, continued Richelieu's war policy for the humiliation of the House of Hapsburg.

The Spanish forces from the Netherlands laid siege to the fortress of Rocroi; but were decisively defeated in the battle of Rocroi, May 19, 1643, by the French under the young Duke d'Enghien, afterward so famous as the "Great Condé." He followed up his victory by the siege and capture of Thionville, the key to Luxemburg, and the strongest fortress in the line of the Moselle, excepting Metz.

In 1644 the French under their able commanders, the Duke d' Enghien and Turenne, won the entire valley of the Rhine from Basle to Coblentz, though they were repulsed with great loss in an attack on Freiburg.

In 1644 Sweden became involved in a war with Denmark, which was still under the rule of King Christian IV.—a war brought about by the intrigues of the Emperor Ferdinand III. and of the queen-dowager of Sweden, who had been excluded from the regency during the minority of her daughter, Queen Christina. Denmark's demand for a payment of toll by Swedish vessels sailing into the Baltic—an imposition from which they had been exempted by a special treaty—was made the pretext for hostilities between the two Scandinavian powers.

The Swedish army under Torstenson invaded Denmark and speedily overran the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein and the peninsula of Jutland. The Swedes also conquered the province of Schonen and the towns of Helsingborg and Landscrona. A German imperial force sent to the relief of the Danes was annihilated and dispersed by the Swedes, only two thousand of these imperial troops succeeding in effecting their retreat into Germany.

The Swedes under Torstenson then returned to Germany, invaded Bohemia, and achieved one of the most brilliant and decisive victories of the war at Jankowitz in 1645. The young Queen Christina of Sweden, who had assumed the government of her kingdom on her eighteenth birthday, in 1644, desired peace, and required her great Chancellor, Count Axel Oxenstiern, to enter into negotiations with King Christian IV. of Denmark; and in August, 1645, the Peace of Brömsebro ended the war between the two Scandinavian powers, Denmark relinquishing the seven southern provinces of Sweden and exempting Swedish vessels from all tolls in the Sound or in the Belts.

In 1645 the French army under the Duke d'Enghien advanced toward the Danube, and gained a brilliant victory over the Bavarian general Von Mercy at Nördlingen, August 7, 1645, thus winning that town and Dinkelsbühl for the French. Turenne took many towns in Flanders, and also captured Treves, which was restored to its Archbishop-Elector, who had long been in captivity among the Spaniards.

In the Spanish Netherlands the French under the Duke d'Enghien captured Courtrai, Mardyk and Dunkirk in 1646; and great conquests by the allied French and Dutch armies were only prevented by the insanity of the Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic. In Germany during the same year the French under Turenne and the Swedes under Torstenson advanced to the very gates of Munich.

The French under the Duke of Guise aided the rebels under the fisherman Masaniello in Naples, who rose in arms in 1647 to cast off the Spanish yoke and to establish an independent republic. King Philip IV. of Spain was so occupied by his operations to reduce Catalonia and Portugal to submission that he recalled his fleet from Naples; but in 1648 another Spanish naval armament restored his authority in Naples, and the

Duke of Guise was taken prisoner at Capua and conveyed to Spain, where he remained in captivity four years.

The Duke d'Enghien became Prince of Condé by the death of his father in 1647; and during the same year he was sent to assist the rebels of Catalonia against the Spaniards, but failed in the siege of Lerida, and returned to France in disgust. He was then sent to command the French army in Flanders. He took the town of Ypres in May, 1648, drove the German imperialists from the province of Picardy, and gained one of his most brilliant victories over the imperial army under the Archduke Leopold of Austria at Lens, in the province of Artois, August 20, 1648.

In the meantime Torstenson, afflicted with the gout, resigned the command of the Swedish forces in Germany, and was succeeded by Wrangel. In 1648 the allied French and Swedish armies in Germany, under Turenne and Wrangel, severely defeated the imperial army under the Italian general Montecuculi near Augsburg, and overran Bavaria, perpetrating all the usual barbarities, but were prevented from marching against Vienna by a sudden rise of the river Inn.

In the same year the Swedish generalissimo, Charles Gustavus, afterward King Charles X. of Sweden, invaded Bohemia, attacked Prague, and waged an indecisive warfare with the German imperial army under General Königsmark until news arrived of the conclusion of the Peace of Westphalia, when hostilities ceased. Thus the Thirty Years' War ended at Prague, where it had begun.

The peace which the German people for years demanded in despair was finally concluded. The preliminaries had been agreed upon at Hamburg in 1641; and the neighboring towns of Münster and Osnabrück, in Westphalia, were selected for the meeting of plenipotentiaries from the belligerent nations. After more than a year had been wasted concerning minute points of etiquette, the two congresses—one of Catholic powers at Münster, and the other of Protestant powers at Osnabrück—were formally opened in 1643.

All the great European nations, except England, Poland and Russia, were represented in these two congresses; as were also the smaller states, such as the duchies of Savoy, Mantua, Tuscany and Catalonia, and the Electorates, principalities and bishoprics of Germany. England was absorbed in civil war, and it was well for the progress of English freedom that the sovereigns of Continental Europe were prevented from intervening in behalf of the "divine right of kings" in England.

All the European governments were doubtless sincerely desirous of peace. The resources of the Emperor Ferdinand III. were exhausted. A considerable portion of Germany was still in arms against him, and another portion had declared its neutrality in the struggle, while his hereditary states were impoverished by their extraordinary exertions. Spain had lost Portugal, Catalonia and numerous towns in the Netherlands, and was now obliged to make humiliating concessions to France. France and Sweden seemed resolved to enlarge their respective territories at the expense of the tottering Germano-Roman Empire.

The claims of the belligerent powers were so numerous and conflicting that the negotiations were protracted for more than five years, and at many points in the conferences peace seemed wholly unattainable. The plenipotentiaries felt their own importance increased by the continuance of the discussion, while the generals had an equal professional interest in the prolongation of the war. Disputes respecting the right of precedence between the ambassadors of France and Spain, and the title of Excellency borne by the Venetian envoy and claimed by the representatives of the German Electors, consumed many months of precious time in the Congress of Münster; while the war between Sweden and Denmark in 1644 and 1645 caused a total suspension of the Congress of Osnabrück for the time.

But finally the rebellion of Masaniello at Naples obliged Spain to bring her negotia-

tions with the Dutch Republic to a conclusion; and in January, 1648, the Eighty Years' War of Independence in the Netherlands was ended by the Peace of Münster, by which Spain formally acknowledged the Dutch Republic as an independent power among the nations of the earth. By this treaty the towns of Dutch Flanders were ceded to the new republic, as were also all the Dutch conquests in America, Africa and the East Indies. When this eighty years' struggle began Spain was by far the greatest power of Europe; but when the struggle ended she was thoroughly crippled and reduced in power and importance, partly in consequence of her own suicidal policy, and partly as a result of the heroic and persistent efforts of her former subjects in the Northern Netherlands.

The war which France and Sweden waged against Spain and the German Empire continued ten months longer; but the triumphant course of the French and Swedish arms in Germany alarmed the Emperor Ferdinand III., so that he consented to an armistice while the conferences at Münster were pressed to a conclusion. Finally the Peace of Westphalia was signed at Münster, October 24, 1648, ending the famous Thirty Years' War by restoring peace between all the belligerent powers except between France and Spain.

By the Peace of Westphalia the Emperor Ferdinand III. granted religious freedom in Germany, proclaimed a general amnesty, and acknowledged the sovereign rights of the German princes in peace and war. The Protestants were to retain all the church property which they had held in 1624, and were to be allowed equality of representation with the Catholics in the Imperial Chamber. But these concessions were confined to Germany. In Bohemia and the hereditary Austrian dominions the Emperor refused to tolerate Protestantism.

The treaty assigned the Upper Palatinate to the Elector Maximilian I. of Bavaria; but the Palatinate of the Rhine was secured to Charles Louis, the son of the unfortunate Elector Frederick V., and he was invested with the title and office of an Elector, so that there were now eight Electors in the German Empire. The Dutch and Swiss Republics were recognized as independent states, the former by Spain and the latter by the German Empire.

By this famous treaty Sweden obtained Western Pomerania, the island of Rugen, the cities of Stettin and Wismar, and the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, which were now secularized into a duchy and a principality. This acquisition of territory in Germany made the Swedish sovereign a prince of the Empire, with three votes in the German Imperial Diet. The Elector of Brandenburg received Eastern Pomerania, the archbishopric of Magdeburg, and the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden and Kamin.

The treaty confirmed France in the possession of all the lands belonging to the three Lorraine bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun, and also ceded to that kingdom all that portion of Alsace which had belonged to Austria, the Sundgau, Breisach, and the prefecture of ten German imperial cities, along with the fortress of Pignerol in Piedmont.

The Treaty of Westphalia began an important era in European history, as it was the first effort to reconstruct the European States-System by diplomacy when their relations had been seriously disturbed. It ended the period of religious and consequent civil revolution which had convulsed Europe for more than a century. It was fatal to the Germano-Roman Empire, which thenceforth existed only in name, the bonds hitherto uniting the Empire being loosened.

Instead of the compact realm which the Emperor Ferdinand II. had sought to build up, Germany was split up into three hundred petty sovereignties, each with its distinct coinage, its standing army, its custom-houses, and a court in which ceremony supplied its lack of grandeur. In short, each of these numerous sovereignties had all the distinctive machinery of a separate state, and all were bound together in a nominal confederacy, without any national feeling.

The Emperor was deprived of his international authority. All the really imperial functions—such as making war or peace, constructing fortifications, raising armies, levying contributions for the support of those armies, etc.—were taken from him and conferred upon the Imperial Diet, which now ceased to be an occasional assembly of the princes of the Empire in person, and became a permanent organization consisting of their envoys with those of the fifty-three free cities. The Diet was required to convene regularly at fixed times and at a stated place. With the nominal existence of the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation there was a system of clumsy formalities which tended mainly to obstruct and embarrass European diplomacy.

Amid the general joy which hailed the conclusion of peace, neither party in Germany was satisfied with the Treaty of Westphalia. The Protestants felt that they had not received the rights to which they were entitled, and the Catholics denounced the treaty because it conceded too much to the Protestants.

Pope Innocent X. denounced the Treaty of Westphalia as "null, invalid, iniquitous, and void of all power and effect." The remarkable change in human thought marked and declared by this treaty concerned His Holiness more nearly than any other European sovereign, except the Emperor. By conferring full civil rights upon persons who were enemies and aliens to the Roman Catholic Church, this celebrated treaty abrogated the entire theory by which the Empire and the Papacy had existed together for eight and a half centuries. But this theory had been slowly vanishing, so that the treaty only announced a change already accomplished. The Emperor Ferdinand III. forbade the publication of the papal bull in his dominions; and the Catholic powers, in their joy at the return of peace after the mighty struggle of a generation, utterly disregarded the thunders of the Vatican.

During the Thirty Years' War two-thirds of the German population had perished by the sword, famine, pestilence and other causes. The resources of Germany were exhausted, and her territory at the close of the war appeared almost like a desert waste. Cities, towns and villages had been laid in ashes; agriculture, manufactures and commerce had been neglected; and much of the former prosperity of Germany had passed away, poverty being general. Peace therefore came none too soon for the unfortunate land, as no other portion of Europe has ever suffered so terribly.

One of the results of the Thirty Years' War was the dissolution of the famous Hanseatic League in 1630, in consequence of the inability of the Hanseatic towns to defray the expenses in which the league involved them.

SECTION II.—PURITAN AND REVOLUTIONARY ENGLAND.

AS WE have seen, the Tudor dynasty, which had worn the crown of England for one hundred and eighteen years (A. D. 1485–1603), ended with the death of Queen Elizabeth, in 1603, when the Stuart family ascended the English throne in the person of King James VI. of Scotland, who now became JAMES I. of England. Thenceforth the crowns of England and Scotland were united, but each kingdom had its own Parliament until 1707, when a constitutional or legislative union took place.

The union of England and Scotland under one sovereign put an end to the hostility that had existed between them for centuries. James I. warmly advocated the adoption of measures to strengthen this union. The two kingdoms were, however, still separate, each managing its internal affairs in its own way. The English Parliament refused to

adopt the king's policy, ascribing it to his partiality for his Scottish subjects and his desire to benefit them.

James I. was a vain, bigoted and pedantic prince. He was in the possession of much theological learning, and delighted to engage in controversies on religious subjects. He loved to make a display of his wisdom and knowledge in lengthy harangues. James was also ambitious of the reputation of being a great author, and he wrote many books. He was plain in person, awkward in manner, and addicted to drunkenness. He was one of the most puerile and the most presumptuous of English sovereigns.

His pedantic display of his learning caused Henry IV. of France to call him "the wisest fool in Christendom." His unpopularity was fully demonstrated by the fact that his peculiarities of person and character were publicly caricatured in the London theaters, to the indescribable enjoyment of the people. The public contempt for his meanness was only surpassed by the public resentment at his usurpations.

James I. lacked the shrewdness and decision essential in a sovereign. He was so extreme a lover of peace as to sacrifice the honor and dignity of his kingdom, for the sake of living on friendly terms with foreign governments. One of the faults of James was his lavishness of favors to unworthy persons.

James I. was a firm believer in "the divine right of kings." He believed that his authority was directly derived from God, and that his power was unlimited. As "the Lord's Anointed," he frankly declared in the Star Chamber: "As it is atheism and blasphemy to dispute what God can do, so it is high contempt in a subject to dispute what a king can do, or to say that the king can not do this or that."

For this reason he hated the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, which made the king only a common member of the congregation; but he was zealously attached to the Episcopal Church of England, in which the monarch was considered the head and origin of all spiritual power; and the great object of James was the suppression of Puritanism in England and Presbyterianism in Scotland, and the full establishment of Episcopacy as the only form of religion throughout his dominions.

The quiet of King James' reign was soon disturbed by a conspiracy to place Lady Arabella Stuart, his first cousin, on the throne of England; but the design of the conspirators was easily frustrated. Sir Walter Raleigh, who was accused of complicity in the plot in favor of Lady Arabella, and tried and convicted on slight evidence, was held in imprisonment for twelve years, during which he wrote his *History of the World*.

Before James I. had reached London he had been approached by Catholics and Puritans; the Catholics basing their hopes on his promise of toleration to obtain Catholic support, and the Puritans expecting much from his Puritan education; but both were doomed to disappointment. As an avowed Episcopalian, and as the Head of the State Church of England, he soon began to execute the laws against the Nonconformists more rigorously than Elizabeth had done.

No sooner was James I. seated on the English throne than he forgot his promises of toleration to the English Roman Catholics, and followed the example of Queen Elizabeth in making them pay an oppressive capitation tax, that he might enrich his favorites and defray the expenses of his court festivals. This aroused the indignation of the Catholics, some of whom at the instigation of Robert Catesby resolved upon a conspiracy to blow up the Parliament House with gunpowder, at a time when the king, the Lords and the Commons would be assembled there, and thus destroy the whole government of England.

The conspirators hired the cellar under the House of Lords ostensibly for business purposes. Lord Mounteagle, a Catholic, received an anonymous letter November 4, 1605, warning him to stay away from Par-

liament. He showed the letter to Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, and the Parliament House was at once examined. Thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were found concealed under a pile of wood and fagots; and Guy Fawkes, the keeper of the cellar, was detected in preparing slow matches for the explosion on the morrow. Guy Fawkes was seized and executed, and his fellow-conspirators were ferreted out and put to death. This conspiracy is known as the *Gunpowder Plot.*

In consequence of this dangerous conspiracy, the English Roman Catholics were heavily fined, and compelled to take an oath of allegiance to the king, renouncing the Pope's right to excommunicate sovereigns or to absolve subjects from their allegiance, as well as the doctrine that excommunicated sovereigns might be deposed or murdered by their subjects or others. Some of the Catholics took the oath. Others refused to do so, at the Pope's bidding. The 5th of November, or *Pope's Day*, has ever since been observed in England as a holiday, one of the performances being the burning of Guy Fawkes in effigy.

James I. was especially arbitrary in matters of religion. The great mass of the English nation had by this time become Puritan; and, while belonging to the Established Church, it disapproved of many ceremonies which had been retained in the Church service, and desired a return to the simple usages described in the New Testament, as well as a more stringent observance of the Sabbath and a more serious tone of manners. But the king rejected the petition of eight hundred clergymen to these ends; and insulted the Puritan divines whom he had invited to Hampton Court, by a frivolous display of his learning, and by brutal expressions of contempt for their grave remonstrances.

The hope that the convention of Episcopal and Puritan divines, which James I. had called in 1604 to discuss the religious question, would harmonize the conflicting religious sects was not realized. The king, who had been the most prominent speaker in behalf of the State Church, was angry at the obstinacy of the Puritans, who failed to be convinced by his arguments. He endeavored to convert them by a threat when the convention closed, saying: "I will make them conform, or I will harry them out of the land." The persecutions which followed obliged multitudes of English subjects to seek an asylum in foreign lands.

The only important result of the convention of Episcopal and Puritan divines, summoned by the king in 1604, was the issue of a new English translation of the Bible in 1611, known as *King James's Version*, the one which is still used by most Protestants among English-speaking nations, and which was revised by a body of British and American divines in 1881. Fifty-four learned English divines were occupied three years in the preparation of King James's Bible.

The Separatists, or Independents, differed from the more moderate Puritans in withdrawing entirely from the Established Church. One congregation, under the Rev. John Robinson, expecting no indulgence at home, emigrated to Holland—that vigorous little republic which had just won its freedom from the iron hand of despotic Spain, and which now offered an asylum to the oppressed of all lands. But the Pilgrim Fathers, being English at heart, desired to live under English laws and to educate their children in the English language. They therefore returned to their native land and embarked in the *Mayflower* for the wilds of America. They finally landed at Plymouth Rock, December 21, 1620, and laid the foundations of a free state in New England. Puritan emigration flowed there for some years. The moral strength of these Puritan colonists entered largely into the character of New England.

The Puritan colonists of New England differed entirely from the idle and dissolute adventurers and gold seekers who founded Jamestown in Virginia in 1607, and who having come to the New World to repair their ruined fortunes, were only saved from starvation by the energy and good sense of Captain John Smith, who insisted that "nothing was to be expected but by labor."

This settlement only began to flourish when "men fell to building houses and planting corn." These settlements were made in the respective territories of the Plymouth and London Companies, chartered by King James I. in 1606. A full account of these English colonies in North America will be given in a separate section.

The reign of James I. was an era of colonization, not only in America, but also in the North of Ireland, which had been desolated by Tyrone's Rebellion. In the first few years of the reign of James I. the Earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, the most powerful chieftains in the North of Ireland, were accused of plotting to overthrow English authority in that kingdom. They saved themselves by flight, and were attainted of treason and outlawed. In 1608 O'Dogherty, an Irish chief of great influence, rebelled, and his estates were declared forfeited. As a result of these unsuccessful plots and rebellions, most of the province of Ulster was confiscated to the English crown.

Thereupon King James I. disposed of the lands of that part of Ireland to English and Scotch settlers, who so improved it that it soon became the most flourishing portion of the Emerald Isle. The Scotch settlers of Ulster were Presbyterians; and their descendants, known as *Scotch-Irish*, are the most prosperous and contented of the population of Erin. Leinster was also colonized by English and Scotch settlers with the same success.

But, notwithstanding the material improvement of Ireland, a deep injury was inflicted upon the country. The native Irish proprietors were driven from their homes and lands in numerous instances to make room for the English and Scotch settlers, thus implanting in the hearts of the Irish people a sense of injustice which Great Britain has not yet eradicated.

The English East-India Company, which was chartered by Queen Elizabeth, December 31, 1600—the last day of the sixteenth century—had its charter renewed, and erected its first factory at Surat, on the western coast of Hindoostan, in 1612.

King James's idea of the "divine right of kings" was the keynote to the royal policy in Church and State. When Parliament assembled in 1604 the House of Commons was largely Puritan, and its temper concerning the principles of absolutism which the king endeavored to enforce is clearly seen in its action. The Commons petitioned for a redress of grievances in matters of religion. The king's decided rejection of this petition encountered as decided a protest on the part of the Commons in these words: "Let your Majesty be pleased to receive public information from your Commons in Parliament, as well of the abuses in the Church as in the civil State. Your Majesty would be misinformed if any man should deliver that the Kings of England have any absolute power in themselves, either to alter religion or to make any laws concerning the same, otherwise than as in temporal causes, by consent of Parliament."

King James I. claimed absolute control over the liberties of the English people. In 1604 a controversy arose between him and the House of Commons concerning the claim by that body of the sole right to judge of the elections of its members. The king insisted upon his right to command the Commons to accept his decision, but the House maintained its privileges. A compromise suggested by the king obviated a more serious misunderstanding.

King James I. levied a tax on all exports and imports, and procured a judicial decision sustaining its legality. The House of Commons then petitioned for a redress of grievances in matters of state. The king's refusal to grant this petition called forth another protest from the Commons, and a prayer that a law be made to declare "that all impositions set upon your people, their goods or merchandise, save only by common consent in Parliament, are and shall be void." The king promptly dissolved Parliament, but his necessities obliged him to summon another.

The questions which divided the king and Parliament became the issue before the English people in the election of a new House

of Commons. The new Parliament was decidedly more antagonistic to the royal policy than its predecessor had been ; as it refused to vote a grant of supplies except on conditions that the king grant a redress of grievances, particularly that of illegal imposts. The angry king displayed his obstinacy and folly by again dissolving Parliament.

The English people resisted the king's illegal levy of customs, and public sentiment was sustained by the decisions of the courts. The indignant king sent for the judges and abused them into promising to submit to his will. But the Lord Chief Justice, Sir Edward Coke, a man of numerous faults, but who would not aid the king in trampling the laws of England under foot, declared that he would decide the cases which came before him as a just judge should. James I. at once dismissed Sir Edward Coke from the royal council; and, as the honest judge adhered to his determination, the king also removed him from the office of Lord Chief Justice in 1615. All classes of the English people regarded this act of the king with horror and resentment, as they considered it the announcement of his intention to tamper with the course of justice.

The breach between the English people and their king was widened by seven years of absolute rule, seven years of extortion. The king continued the illegal imposts ; revived the odious *benevolences;* practiced the equally odious system of *purveyance*, regardless of law; renewed the sale of monopolies, and the obsolete system of royal wardship giving to the king during the minority of the heir the incomes of the estates held under military tenure; and sold patents of nobility so freely that at the time of his death one-half of the Peers of England were those which he had created.

The royal right of purveyance was an old prerogative of the English crown by which the king had the preference over all others in the purchase of supplies. He could take the supplies at an appraised value, even without the owner's consent. The royal officers frequently practiced great injustice, as the right of purveyance became a system of royal robbery under some of the English kings. An effort was made to regulate it in Magna Charta, and also by repeated Parliamentary enactments during succeeding reigns. Charles II. finally relinquished the right for a compensation.

The money which King James I. wrung from his subjects by his illegal measures was wasted on his corrupt courtiers, thus exciting the indignation and disgust of the English people.

The king exhibited his weakness in the choice of his personal favorites, who were generally unworthy persons, and who were entrusted with the highest and most responsible stations in the government. Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, during his life-time managed to retain his influence over King James I.; but after that nobleman's death the king surrendered himself entirely to his favorites.

The first of these was Robert Carr, a handsome but ignorant Scottish youth, whom the king created Earl of Somerset, and to whom he gave daily lessons in Latin and in "king-craft." The royal favorite desired to marry the Countess of Essex; but was advised by his friend, Sir Thomas Overbury, not to do so. The countess was so irritated at this that she persuaded the Earl of Somerset to have Sir Thomas Overbury imprisoned in the Tower, where he was soon afterward poisoned. The Earl of Somerset and the Countess of Essex, who had contrived the murder, were then married; but the crime threw the earl into such a state of remorse and melancholy as to spoil his graceful gayety and make him so dull a companion that the king became weary of him. The guilt of the earl and his wife was afterward discovered. They, and all who had been accessory to the murder, were tried and convicted. Their accomplices were executed, but the earl and his wife were only banished. They lived many years, dragging out a most miserable life; as their former love, which had led them to murder, was changed to the most deadly hatred.

King James I. had in the meantime found

a new favorite in George Villiers, whom the king raised by successive promotions to the exalted rank of Duke of Buckingham, also creating him Prime Minister. This haughty favorite, who had an unbounded influence over the king, displayed himself in Parliament, his velvet dress glittering with diamonds, openly parading the wealth which he had acquired by the acceptance of enormous bribes. The only way by which even men of the highest rank could secure the king's favor, obtain and retain public office, or even come into the king's presence, was to bribe this handsome but corrupt royal favorite and Prime Minister.

The foreign policy of James I. was no more satisfactory to the English people than was his management of the domestic affairs of the kingdom. The great Thirty Years' War which broke out in Germany in 1618 eventually involved most of the great powers of Europe. It was supposed that James I. would at least give his moral support to the Protestant cause in Germany, especially as his daughter Elizabeth was the wife of the Elector-Palatine, Frederick V., whom the Protestant Bohemians had chosen for their king, in opposition to the Austrian Ferdinand II., who was also Emperor of Germany.

The English Parliament would have willingly voted funds to support the Protestant interest in Germany, but King James I. had more regard for the "divine right" of the Austrian despot than for the rights and liberties of the Bohemian Protestants. He consented to aid his son-in-law to maintain his hereditary dominions, the Palatinate, but not to secure possession of Bohemia. The sympathies of England's Protestant king were wholly with Catholic Austria and Catholic Spain against the German Protestants.

The English people had a most implacable hatred for Spain; and after the death of Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, the king deliberately antagonized this sentiment of his subjects. He began to cultivate friendly relations with Spain, and commenced negotiations for the marriage of his son, Prince Charles, with a Spanish princess. The war party in England loudly demanded that war be declared against Spain, in the interest of the German Protestants; but James I. treated this demand with contempt, and became more intimate with Spain, England's most inveterate enemy.

For the purpose of inducing Spain to declare war against England, the English war party had caused an expedition to be prepared against the Spanish colony of Guiana, in South America, and induced the king to release Sir Walter Raleigh in 1616, that he might lead this expedition for the purpose of finding a gold mine of which he knew and which might enrich the king and his courtiers. The king, however, only released Raleigh without pardoning him of the crime of complicity in the plot to place Lady Arabella Stuart on the English throne.

King James I. allowed the expedition to sail for Guiana, but treacherously informed the Spaniards of it. Raleigh was defeated with the loss of his eldest son and his entire fortune. On his return voyage Raleigh attempted to seize the Spanish treasure galleons, for the purpose of forcing Spain to declare war against England. To appease the clamors of the Spanish government, King James I. consented to sacrifice Raleigh; and that distinguished personage was beheaded October 29, 1618, on the sentence for high treason which the king had kept hanging over his head for fourteen years.

Raleigh met death with manliness and dignity. He desired to see the ax, and felt the edge of it, remarking to the sheriff: "This is a sharp medicine, but a sure remedy for all evils." This cruel act is an indelible stain upon the character of James I., and at the time aroused great popular indignation. Sir Walter Raleigh had introduced potatoes into England from South America, and tobacco from the West Indies.

The English people and even the courtiers of James I. vainly appealed to the king to strike a blow in behalf of German Protestantism. Although the interests of his religion and the welfare of his son-in-law demanded his intervention, he steadfastly

refused to prevent Spain from engaging in the struggle in Germany. He believed that the Spanish king's friendship for himself would induce him at his request to relinquish his designs upon the Palatinate; but he was freed from this delusion when the Spanish army invaded and subdued his son-in-law's hereditary dominions, after that prince's expulsion from Bohemia.

James I. was frightened by the burst of fury which broke forth from the English nation, and he was also angry for the moment at being so easily duped by Spain, so that he permitted a national subscription to provide funds to enable the Elector-Palatine to raise an army for his defense, and summoned a Parliament, which he opened with a speech which led his subjects to hope that he would at least act as a Protestant king should.

James I. did obtain a cessation of hostilities for a single summer by threatening to make war on Spain if she continued her attack upon the Palatinate; but, when the Catholic League of Germany had effected the conquest of the Upper Palatinate, he entered into the same friendly relations with Philip IV. of Spain that he had cultivated with Philip III., leaving his son-in-law to his fate. During the remaining few years of his reign he abstained from intervention in favor of the Protestants of Continental Europe, giving the benefit of his friendship to Spain, being influenced thereto by his eagerness to secure a Spanish bride for his son.

In the meantime the general demand of the English people for another Parliament forced the king to issue writs for a new election; and the Parliament of 1621 was the most famous of his reign, in consequence of the boldness with which it resisted the king's unlawful assumptions and attacked abuses and corruption.

This Parliament reasserted a privilege which had long fallen into disuse, by impeaching the Lord Chancellor, Lord Bacon, the greatest philosopher of England and one of the greatest of all time, on the charge of having accepted bribes and for other corrupt practices—an intolerable stain on the honor of his exalted station and of the English nation. He was dismissed from his high office with ignominy, and also condemned to pay a fine of forty thousand pounds, to imprisonment in the Tower, and to perpetual exclusion from office. The king soon remitted his fine and imprisonment, but the stigma could never be removed from a name which would otherwise have shone as one of the brightest in English history. James I. would have stopped Bacon's impeachment as an attack upon the crown itself had not the Lord Chancellor incurred the hostility of the Duke of Buckingham, who induced the king to leave Bacon to his fate.

This Parliament then appealed to King James I. to aid the German Protestants, to make war on Spain instead of a treaty of alliance with that power, and to secure a Protestant instead of a Catholic bride for the Prince of Wales. As the committee which the House of Commons sent to communicate their demands to the king was anounced to His Majesty, he uttered the following ironical order: "Bring stools for the ambassadors."

The boldness of the Commons offended the king, who forbade any further discussion of the affairs of state. He sharply told them that all their rights and powers were derived from himself and from the gracious permission of his ancestors, and that he would maintain their lawful liberties only so long as they kept within the bounds of their duty.

When the king's commands were repeated by the committee on its return to the House, a member of the Commons said: "Let us pray, and then consider of this great business." The representatives of the English people replied to the king's insolent commands and assumptions in the following resolution: "The liberties, franchises, privileges and jurisdictions of Parliament are the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England."

The king sent for the journals of the House of Commons, and with his own hand tore out the leaves containing the manly

protest, after which he dissolved Parliament in great wrath; but within two years his necessities forced him to call for the election of a new Parliament. Although James I. might destroy the records of Parliament, he could not extinguish the spirit of liberty enkindled afresh in the hearts of the patriot Commons and of the English people whom they represented. It was a very fortunate circumstance for the cause of English constitutional freedom that the extravagant government of James I. squandered more money even in peace than that of Elizabeth had ever expended in war; as his necessities threw him into growing dependence upon Parliament.

Prince Henry, the king's eldest son, died in 1612, to the great grief of the English nation, which thus experienced a great loss, as the dignity and orderly virtue of the prince's little court was a silent rebuke to the corrupt and extravagant royal household. "Baby Charles," the king's remaining son, then became the heir to the crowns of England and Scotland.

Notwithstanding the deep public feeling and the long cherished policy of England, James I. resolved to secure the marriage of his son to a Spanish Infanta, thus disregarding the remonstrances of Parliament and of all his nobles and counselors except the Duke of Buckingham. To please Spain, he refused to aid the German Protestants, thus allowing the struggle for Bohemia to grow into the great Thirty Years' War, while he suspended all the laws against popery at home. King Philip IV. of Spain was in favor of the marriage, but resolved to profit by the eagerness of James I. and make him pay dearly for the match.

In 1623 Prince Charles and the Duke of Buckingham undertook a romantic journey into Spain to see the Infanta and complete the marriage contract. When they arrived at Madrid they were treated with great respect by King Philip IV.; but the insolent manners of the Duke of Buckingham offended the haughty Spaniards; and, as he perceived that he would not find any favor from a Spanish queen when Prince Charles became King of England, he used his great influence against the match, thus breaking off the negotiations with the Spanish court. This result was celebrated in England with bonfires and unbounded rejoicings. Prince Charles was affianced to Henrietta Maria, sister of King Louis XIII. of France; but before the marriage was consummated King James I. died of the ague, March 27, 1625. It was during the reign of James I. that Shakespeare died, A. D. 1616.

CHARLES I., the son and successor of James I., was in his twenty-fifth year when he became King of England and Scotland. He had been very popular with all classes before his accession, and the English people had hoped for much by the change of sovereigns. Charles I. was a remarkably handsome man, with a body of middle stature, of great natural vigor, and finely proportioned. He was gracious and dignified in his bearing, and "of a sweet but melancholy aspect." He excelled in horsemanship and manly sports, and was endowed with many of the qualities of an excellent sovereign.

Charles I. was unsurpassed in domestic virtue by any sovereign that has reigned over England. He showed a good example to his courtiers and subjects in the morality and regularity of his conduct. He was moderate in all his habits and expenses, refined in his manners, humane and gentle in his disposition, kind and affectionate by nature, and a most tender husband and father. He was hasty in temper, but generous and forgiving. He had great taste for art and literature, and his mind was highly cultivated. He had extraordinary talents for reasoning and argument; but, on account of his indecision of character, he seldom acted as wisely as he could talk, and was frequently swayed by the counsels of men of inferior capacity.

But unfortunately for King Charles I., he had imbibed his father's ideas of absolute power; and he ascended the thrones of England and Scotland with the resolute determination to make himself the absolute master of his subjects. He considered himself superior to the laws of the realm,

and looked upon every effort to restrict his power within the limits of the English constitution as downright treason to the crown. Ascending the English throne with such ideas of the "divine right of kings," at the most critical period of England's history, he was not likely to reform the evils from which England had suffered so long.

Charles's fatal defect as a king was his falsity of character which canceled the most solemn engagements and deprived him of all claims to confidence. It may have been his misfortune, rather than his crime, that he was unable to believe in the wisdom or even in the honesty of any theory of government but his own, or to perceive that his

KING CHARLES I.
[By permission of Magazine of American History.]

throne could never be firm until it was "broad-based upon the people's will."

A few weeks after his accession, Charles I. married the Princess Henrietta Maria, daughter of the murdered Henry IV. of France, to whom he had been betrothed during the latter part of his father's reign, as we have already noticed. This royal marriage was not pleasing to the English people, as the new queen was a Roman Catholic. A retinue of priests of her own religious faith accompanied her to England, and these priests undertook to interfere in the affairs of the English court to such an extent that numberless quarrels resulted therefrom.

These priests induced the queen to make a pilgrimage to Tyburn, the place for the hanging of the lowest malefactors, and where some Roman Catholics had been executed during the reign of Henry VIII. This proceeding excited such intense popular indignation in England that the queen's French attendants were sent back to their own country. The French court submitted an apology for their conduct, and the queen was permitted to have a Roman Catholic bishop and twelve Roman Catholics priests attached to her household.

Little had been heard of constitutional liberty in England during the entire period that the Tudor dynasty occupied the English throne—a result consequent upon the destruction of the mediæval baronage of England in the Wars of the Roses. As we have now come to the threshold of a renewal of the struggle for English constitutional liberty, a brief retrospect will render the course of events upon which we are now about to enter more intelligble.

Mediæval civilization in Europe was based on the Feudal System; and in England both went down in the Wars of the Roses, along with the proud baronage founded by the Norman Conqueror. The Wars of the Roses reduced England to the verge of anarchy; and a stable throne was the only power that saved the country, or that was able to save it, from total anarchy. All parties and classes of Englishmen therefore turned to the throne with the instinct of self-preservation.

The new English nobility, the land owners and the moneyed classes, remembering the communistic and leveling doctrines of John Ball and the leaders of Wat Tyler's Rebellion, looked to the throne for protection from another peasant revolt.

The Roman Catholic Church, conscious of the silent but vigorous growth of the ideas implanted by Wickliffe, turned to the throne to save it from another reformation.

The English masses, having suffered from the evils of a disputed succession, were ready to welcome any dynasty with sufficient strength to save them from the horrors of another civil war.

The House of Commons—that great hope of the English nation during the reigns of the Plantagenets—had degenerated into a mere appendage of the crown, in consequence of a sweeping restriction of the elective franchise, and a wholesale corruption in the election of its members; and under some of the Tudor sovereigns it had become the great instrument of royal oppression.

During the Tudor period the English sovereigns gradually came into possession of all the powers of Church and State, thus making themselves absolute monarchs. It was natural that the sovereign should become arbitrary. It was not strange that he should grow despotic.

But, even in the very midst of this absolute rule, silent forces were sapping the foundations of this absolutism; and these forces were destined to effect the overthrow of this absolute royal power in the course of human events. The invention of the art of printing tended to a general diffusion of knowlege and a consequent elevation of the masses. An enlightened public sentiment concerning the relation of sovereign and subject, that was far in advance of the theory and practice of the government, was silently growing up in England. As convictions of the sacredness of human rights grew strong, faith in the doctrine of the "divine right of kings" grew weak. The

advocates of that doctrine claimed the Christian Scriptures as their authority, basing their claims upon St. Paul's injunction: "Resist not the powers that be, for they are ordained of God." As the kings were "the powers that be," they claimed that resistance to them was opposition and disobedience to God.

As we have seen, James I. was a firm believer in the "divine right of kings," and was extremely jealous of any encroachment on the royal prerogative. He was resolved to preserve and extend the absolute power which the Tudors had wielded; and, as we have seen, he was consequently involved in a continual contest with the English Parliament, which was determined to assert its own rights, and to uphold the liberties of the English people. Though he repeatedly dissolved Parliaments, the next were always sure to be more obstinate than their predecessors.

It was therefore evident that a collision between king and people was at hand in England during the reign of James I. At his death there was a brief lull in the civil storm that was soon to break over the head of his son and successor. It will always be wondered how Charles I. could be so thoroughly blind to the signs of the times and the spirit of the age that he should not profit by his father's political errors, but that he should obstinately pursue his father's foolish policy.

The struggle which was soon to hurry England into the throes of revolution was defined very clearly. It was constitutional liberty versus royal prerogative—an oppressed people against a tyrannical king. The English people, whom the crown alone was able to rescue from the robber barons during the reign of Henry II., and whom the patriot barons alone could protect against royal tyranny during the reign of Henry III.—this great English people had finally outgrown dependence on king and baron, and eventually proved stronger than both. This great people thus became the pioneers of modern constitutional freedom against the "divine right of kings."

At the time of the accession of Charles I. public feeling in England ran high against Roman Catholicism. The Thirty Years' War in Germany, which had commenced in a contest between the Elector-Palatine Frederick V. and Ferdinand II. of Austria for the crown of Bohemia, had, as we have seen, widened into a life and death struggle between Roman Catholics and Protestants.

In addition to the sympathy which English Protestants felt for their brethren in Germany, they were naturally interested in behalf of the Elector-Palatine because he was the son-in-law of King James I. Spain having openly taken sides with the Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic cause, England had entered the lists against Spain, in addition to sending a small army to the aid of the Elector-Palatine.

The war with Spain lagged through the indifference of the Duke of Buckingham, whom Charles I. retained as Prime Minister, and to whose pernicious influence the young king completely surrendered himself. As Charles I. began his reign with an empty exchequer he called upon Parliament for a subsidy; but the House of Commons was now composed of able and patriotic men, who loved their country and who were keenly aware of the perils which menaced her. Said one of these sturdy Commons: "England is the last monarchy who yet retains her liberties. Let them not perish now!"

Suspicious of the king's intentions, and watchful of the liberties of England, the Commons House of Parliament granted the customs called *tonnage* and *poundage* for but one year, instead of for the king's life-time. Charles I. resented this limitation and refused to accept the vote, and then proceeded to levy the customs on his own authority. Parliament proceeded to discuss the public grievances, whereupon it was dissolved by the angry king, who had fully resolved to enforce the doctrine of the "divine right of kings." The king's resort to a forced loan afforded but a temporary relief, and aroused the most intense popular indignation. The English people were fully as re-

solved to assert their rights and liberties as the king was to carry into practice his notions of the royal prerogative.

An English expedition under the Duke of Buckingham against Cadiz ended in failure, leaving King Charles I. deeply involved in debt. In his necessities the king was obliged to summon a new Parliament. This Parliament convened in 1626; but, instead of voting a grant of supplies to the king, the House of Commons, under the guidance of that fearless patriot, Sir John Eliot, proceeded to impeach the Ministers of the Crown. Charges of corruption against the Duke of Buckingham were carried in the House; and Eliot, in a speech of fiery eloquence, arraigned the royal favorite at the bar of the House of Lords. The angry king sent the sturdy patriot to imprisonment in the Tower. The refusal of the Commons to act on public affairs forced the baffled king to release the patriotic Eliot, but their request for the dismissal of the Duke of Buckingham caused the exasperated king to dissolve this Parliament also.

The illegal taxation, in the form of *benevolences* and forced loans, which the king now resorted to, threw the whole kingdom into a ferment and aroused the English people to resistance. Although many of the clergy preached the doctrine of *absolute passive obedience*, men in every part of England refused to give or lend to the king, and the royal commissioners were driven from the towns with cries of "A Parliament! a Parliament! else no subsidies!" Poor men were punished for their refusal by being drafted into the army or navy. Two hundred gentlemen of fortune were imprisoned and finally brought before the Council. Among these was the resolute John Hampden, that sturdy patriot and lover of liberty whose name has ever since been cherished by Englishmen. He declared that he "could be content to lend," but he feared to bring upon himself the curse in Magna Charta against all who violated that solemn compact between king and people. He was accordingly punished by a still more severe imprisonment.

Though Spain and Catholic Germany were now in open hostility to England, and though the war with Spain had resulted in miserable failure, Charles I. had the rashness to rush into a war with France also, at a time when he was utterly penniless and at variance with his subjects. As he had broken the stipulation which had been made between England and France when he became betrothed to the Princess Henrietta Maria, which provided for toleration to the Roman Catholics in England, Richelieu and Olivarez, the able Prime Ministers of France and Spain respectively, planned a joint invasion of England. The Duke of Buckingham sought to checkmate this Franco-Spanish scheme of invasion by an attack on France. He sailed from England with a large fleet to the relief of La Rochelle, the Huguenot stronghold, which was then besieged by the French Catholics; but his mismanagement cost him two-thirds of his expedition and accomplished nothing. This second naval disaster of the Duke of Buckingham, more humiliating than that against Cadiz, left King Charles I. still more deeply in debt, thus forcing him to summon another Parliament.

The English people, now thoroughly aroused to a sense of the danger with which their liberties were threatened, returned a House of Commons more resolute in its hostility to the king than its predecessors. This Parliament of 1628 also demanded a redress of popular grievances as the condition on which it would vote a grant of money. It arrayed its grievances and formulated its demands in a famous document called the *Petition of Right*, A. D. 1628, which has justly been styled "The Second Great Charter of English Liberties." After enumerating the laws of Edward I. and Edward III. which guaranteed the rights of the subject, and complaining that, in addition to arbitrary taxes, imprisonments and executions, large bodies of soldiers and sailors had recently been quartered in private houses, to the great grievance and vexation of the people, the petition closed by "humbly praying His Most Excellent Majesty" for relief from all these

grievances, "according to the laws and statutes of this realm."

The king's refusal to sign this great document was answered by Parliament in another state paper called a "Remonstrance on the State of the Kingdom." The remonstrance was aimed at the Duke of Buckingham; and when that official's name was mentioned the Speaker of the House of Commons forbade any further discussion, saying that he held a royal order against permitting any member to speak against the Ministers of the Crown.

This direct royal interference with the right of free speech, one of the most unquestioned privileges of the English Parliament, produced a scene in the House of Commons that words fail to describe. The eloquent Sir John Eliot, who was addressing the House, sank into his seat, stunned with amazement. After a few moments of deathlike silence, followed by sounds of suppressed excitement, the House was in an uproar. Exclamations of Amazement, grief and indignation broke forth from the astounded Commons. Some wept, and others prayed. Members took the floor to address the House, and then sank into their seats, overcome with emotion. The venerable Sir Edward Coke finally arose, and in bitter invective denounced the Duke of Buckingham as the author of all the perils that threatened the liberties of England.

Alarmed by the dangers that menaced his favorite Minister, King Charles I. sought to allay the storm by signing the Petition of Right. But it was too late. The House of Commons had resolved upon the destruction of the Duke of Buckingham, and pressed the "Remonstrance on the State of the Kingdom;" whereupon the king hastily prorogued the House. The public joy at the king's action in signing the Petition of Right was signalized by ringing bells and blazing bonfires, as the English people then thought that royal oppression would be ended.

The Duke of Buckingham soon ceased to be an object of anxiety to either the king or the Commons. While preparing to take charge of another expedition to relieve La Rochelle, he was assassinated at Portsmouth, August 23, 1628, by a melancholy and enthusiastic Puritan Irishman named Felton, who had been discharged from the public service. The assassin had followed the obnoxious Prime Minister for several days like a shadow, without being able to effect his purpose. Finally, as the Duke of Buckingham was passing through a doorway, he turned to speak to Sir Thomas Fryer, who was following him, when Felton suddenly reached over Sir Thomas's shoulder and stabbed the duke in the breast with a knife. The duke exclaimed: "The villain has killed me!" He then pulled the knife from his wound and fell dead.

No one had seen the blow nor the person who inflicted it; but a hat being picked up, on the inside of which was sewed a paper containing four or five lines of the "Remonstrance on the State of the Kingdom," it was conjectured that the hat belonged to the assassin; and, while those present were conjecturing whose hat it might be, a man without a hat was seen walking very composedly before the door. One of the bystanders cried out: "Here he is!" Others ran up, inquiring: "Which is he?" The man replied very sedately: "I am he!" He disdained denying the murder, but gloried in the act, saying that he had considered the Duke of Buckingham an enemy of his country, and therefore deserving of death. When asked at whose instigation he had murdered the duke he replied that they need not trouble themselves as to that matter, that his conscience alone prompted him to do the deed, and that no man on earth could induce him to act contrary to its dictates. He was tried, condemned and executed, dying with the same degree of constancy. There were many who admired not only his fortitude, but also the deed for which he met death on the scaffold.

An explanation is necessary concerning the persistency with which the House of Commons pursued the Duke of Buckingham even after King Charles I. had assumed the responsibility of all the offenses charged

against him. It was then, as it is now, a settled principle of the English monarchy that "the king can do no wrong." In case of wrong doing by the government, the king's Ministers are held responsible; and the only way to coerce or punish the king himself, without the extreme resort of revolution, is the removal or punishment of the Ministers.

The House of Commons, at its next session, in 1629, summoned the collectors of the illegal taxes to its bar. They appeared, but refused to answer, pleading the king's orders. The Speaker, Sir John Finch, was about to adjourn the House, in obedience to a royal order. The House was instantly in an uproar. The Speaker was held down in his chair by some of the members, while others kept the doors locked against the king's messenger until some resolutions offered by Sir John Eliot were passed by acclamation rather than by vote. These resolutions denounced "as a capital enemy of the kingdom any Minister who shall seek to change the established religion or advise the levying of taxes without consent of Parliament." The House then unlocked its doors and allowed itself to be dissolved.

Upon the occasion of this dissolution, Charles I. announced that he would henceforth rule without a Parliament. The earnestness of the king's threat was proven by eleven years of personal government, during which Parliament was not once assembled, and which constitute one of the gloomiest periods in English history. Nine of the leaders of the popular party were imprisoned in the Tower, among whom was the illustrious patriot, Sir John Eliot, who died within the walls of that historic state prison.

The English fleet arrived before La Rochelle too late to relieve the beleaguered Huguenots, who were forced to surrender that stronghold under the very eyes of their English allies. Poverty soon compelled King Charles I. to make peace with his foreign foes.

After the assassination of the Duke of Buckingham, Charles I. inaugurated a new policy, amounting almost to a change in the constitution of England. Hitherto the king had chosen his personal favorites, or men whom he considered able statesmen, for his Ministers, regardless of the opinions or wishes of the people.

Charles I. now selected his chief Ministers from the leaders of the popular party which had opposed the new royal assumptions, thus making it their interest to maintain the power which had made them its representatives. But the king did not derive all the advantages from this policy that he expected; as his views were so directly opposed to the opinions of the Puritans that the leaders whom he had gained lost all influence with their party from that moment, and were even pursued as traitors with implacable resentment.

The chief of these popular leaders who accepted office under the king was Sir Thomas Wentworth, whom the king raised by successive promotions to the rank of

EARL OF STRAFFORD.

Earl of Strafford, and whom he made his Prime Minister. Wentworth had spoken in favor of popular rights only because of his hatred and jealousy of the Duke of Buckingham; but no sooner had the assassination of that royal favorite made way for his rise into power than he threw off the mask and used his great abilities in building up the

power of the crown. The king also raised his new Prime Minister to the dignity of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. After subduing that restless country, the new Lord Lieutenant raised a fleet and army therefrom to enforce the royal will in England and Scotland. The arbitrary court of the *Star Chamber* had jurisdiction over offenses against the king.

Charles I. also attempted to establish the Episcopal Church on a firmer basis, and to suppress Puritanism in England and Presbyterianism in Scotland, with the view of checking the rapid growth of republican principles among the English people. For the purpose of accomplishing this end, the king appointed the zealous William Laud, Bishop of London, to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud caused the Cathedral of St. Paul's, in London, to be consecrated anew, and the churches to be supplied with numerous images and ornaments, and imposed upon the Puritans ceremonies and observances hitherto unpracticed by the Church of England.

Archbishop Laud, who thus became the chief agent in a religious tyranny which almost drove both England and Scotland to revolt, improved every opportunity to preach submission to the "Lord's Anointed" in the payment of taxes; and he demanded from English Puritans and Scotch Presbyterians a strict conformity to his own rules for public worship.

Charles I. had inherited his father's hatred of the Scotch Presbyterians; and, by a most illegal assumption of power, he sought to impose upon Scotland the liturgy and usages of the Church of England. He also renewed his father's law encouraging public sports and recreations on Sunday afternoons, and commanded all clergymen to read his proclamation to that effect after morning service in the churches. For refusing compliance with this order, multitudes of the Puritan clergy were ejected from their livings by order of Archbishop Laud. The new Primate invested the arbitrary court of *High Commission* with jurisdiction over offenses against the Church, and that infamous tribunal pronounced severe punishments upon all who manifested any opposition to his ecclesiastical tyranny. Thus Prynne, a Puritan, was sentenced to be exposed in the pillory, to lose both his ears, and to be imprisoned for life, for writing a volume against dancing, masks and theatrical amusements—affairs in which the king and his courtiers delighted.

Besides the Courts of High Commission and the Star Chamber, there was a *Council of the North*, which was vested with almost absolute authority in the northern counties of England. The proceedings of these arbitrary tribunals endangered civil and religious liberty in England, and threw the whole kingdom into a ferment. The Puritan preachers who had lost their offices traveled through the country, denouncing the arbitrary measures of Laud as preliminary steps to the reëstablishment of popery in England; and, by their passionate appeals, they excited the people against the king, the Primate and the clergy.

Archbishop Laud's ecclesiastical tyranny led to a large Puritan emigration to New England. Patents were secured and companies organized for that purpose. The Puritans proceeded reluctantly to the place of embarkation, with their eyes looking longingly toward the distant refuge of the Pilgrim Fathers across the billowy deep, yet moist with tears as they turned their backs upon their native land and upon scenes that were dear to them; their hearts swelling with grief as the shores of "Dear Old Mother England" faded from their sight, yet rising to lofty purpose and sublime resignation as they abandoned home and country to enjoy the blessings of religious freedom in a strange land. They fully counted the cost of their forced migration—the peril, poverty and hardships of their new homes in the American wilderness.

The Puritan exodus continued until the New England coast was dotted with settlements. John Endicott founded Salem in 1628. John Winthrop and eight hundred

followers founded Boston in 1630. Lord Say-and-Seal and Lord Brooke obtained a charter for the settlement of the region now comprising the State of Connecticut; and under this charter the Rev. Thomas Hooker founded Hartford, while the Rev. John Davenport founded New Haven. Lord Baltimore obtained a grant of the territory now embraced in the State of Maryland, as an asylum for persecuted English Roman Catholics; and the colony under this charter made its first settlement at St. Mary's in 1634.

During the interval between the dissolution of the Parliament of 1629 and the assembling of the Long Parliament in 1640 twenty thousand Puritans had migrated from Old England to New England. It is said that even John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell once embarked for America, but the sailing of their ship was stopped by a Royal Order in Council. Even Charles I. never committed a greater blunder, as these two sturdy patriots became the leaders of the mighty revolution which cost the king his throne and his life. Hampden had purchased a tract of land on Narraganset Bay.

It was by the advice of the Earl of Strafford that Charles I. resolved to govern without a Parliament. The lawless exactions of tonnage and poundage were still continued. While the Court of High Commission was doing its tyrannical work in the name of religion, the Star Chamber was crushing out every vestige of civil liberty. The officers of this infamous tribunal surpassed even the lawyers of Henry VII. in the ingenuity with which they entrapped and robbed the people. Obsolete laws and customs—such as had passed away with the feudal times in which they had originated, but which had never been formally repealed —were revived, and all who offended against them were fined. Knighthood was forced on the gentry unless commuted with money. The forest laws were executed with rigor, and poachers were punished with heavy fines.

James I. had endeavored to check the growth of London by a royal order defining its corporate limits. Charles I. ordered every house since erected to be torn down unless its owner paid into the royal treasury a sum equal to three years' rent. The execution of this relentless order rendered hundreds of the poor houseless. Monopolies prevailed in England to a greater extent under Charles I. than under Elizabeth or James I., raising the price of the necessaries of life to an exorbitant figure.

The climax of national forbearance was reached when King Charles I. revived an old tax of the times of Alfred the Great and Ethelred II., called *ship money*, because it was used for the support of the navy. From the times of those Saxon kings this duty had been imposed as a war tax upon the maritime counties for the defense of the English coast, and those monarchs had only presumed to call for this tax with the advice and consent of the Witenagemote; while Charles I. ordered the levy of ship money upon all the English people, inland as well as maritime, for general purposes and in time of peace, demanding it by his own arbitrary will.

JOHN HAMPDEN.

Sir John Eliot, the early champion of English constitutional liberty under Charles I., was in his grave; but he had a worthy successor in the person of John Hampden, of whom we have already spoken, and who

was a Buckinghamshire farmer of moderate means. This illustrious patriot resolutely refused to pay any ship money, in order to bring the matter to a legal test in the courts. Hampden was consequently tried in the Exchequer Chamber in 1637, and the eyes of all England were upon the proceedings. Even the Earl of Clarendon, in his *History of the Rebellion*, says that Hampden "grew the argument of all tongues, every man inquiring who and what he was, that durst at his own charge support the liberty and prosperity of the kingdom."

After a long delay, the Court of Exchequer gave its decision. Four of the twelve judges, though holding their places only during the king's pleasure, had the moral courage to give a sentence in favor of the resolute patriot. Seven decided against him, and one gave an evasive answer. The moral victory remained with Hampden; for, though he was defeated through royal influence, and though the court's sentence placed all the property in England at the king's disposal, the king's injustice was made apparent to all England, and the public mind was educated to resistance.

While the royal assumptions were thus violently opposed in England, the attempts of King Charles I. to enforce the Episcopal form of worship in Scotland produced a formidable rebellion in that country in 1637, which lasted several years. Charles I. had visited Scotland in 1633, and was then crowned king of that country in the Abbey Church of Holyrood with imposing ceremonies. On that occasion the clergy gave great offense to the Scots by wearing the vestments of the Church of England.

Charles I. increased the ill feeling of the Scots by issuing an order to the Scottish clergy to wear surplices, and commanding the Scottish bishops to wear rochets and sleeves instead of the Geneva cloak as formerly. A change was also made in the manner of choosing the *Lords of the Articles*, the committee which directed the legislation of the Scottish Parliament, thus placing the choice entirely in the hands of the bishops. This was done by the king's direct order, and the members of the Scottish Parliament opposed to the measure addressed a remonstrance to the king. He treated this remonstrance as a political offense, and imprisoned Lord Balmerinoch, who presented it. He afterward liberated the captive Scottish lord; but the Scots generally considered this action as the result of fear, and not as a mark of the king's good will toward them.

In 1637 Charles I. caused a book of canons to be prepared for the government of the Scottish Church, and on his own authority, without the ratification of it by the Scottish Parliament, commanded the Scots to use it instead of their Book of Discipline. Archbishop Laud soon afterward prepared a liturgy, and King Charles I. commanded the Scottish clergy to use it in their churches instead of the Book of Common Order, which was then in general use by them.

The attempt of the Dean of Edinburgh to use the Episcopal liturgy in St. Giles's Church, July 16, 1637, produced a violent tumult. The Dean and the Bishop of Edinburgh were driven from the church by an enraged mob, amid cries of "Pope!" "Antichrist!" "Stone him!" Other riots ensued.

The king issued a proclamation calling upon the malcontents to disperse to their homes, and refused to listen to the petitions which were addressed to him from every portion of Scotland. His obstinacy inflamed the popular discontent in Scotland, and the Episcopal bishops and other members of the Privy Council were mobbed in Edinburgh.

At length a committee, composed of four members from each class of Scotland—nobles, gentry, clergy and burgesses—and known as the *Tables*, was formed to represent the Scottish people in their contest with the government. This committee was more troublesome than the mob; as it forced its way into the council chamber, where it insisted on discussing the public grievances, and demanded the removal of the Episcopal bishops.

The king replied by a threatening proclamation; whereupon the Scots renewed the Covenant, which this time contained a pro-

vision for the overthrow of the Episcopal bishops. The previous Covenants had been signed by the notables of Scotland only; but this *National Covenant*, which was industriously circulated, was signed by nine-tenths of the Scottish people of all classes, rich and poor, noble and peasant, A. D. 1638. For this reason the national party of Scotland were called *Covenanters*.

The closing paragraph of the National Covenant, showing both the tenor of the Covenant and the temper of the Scottish people, was as follows: "We promise and swear, by the name of the Lord our God, to continue in the profession and obedience of the said religion, and that we shall defend the same, and resist all the contrary errors and corruptions, according to our vocation and the utmost of that power which God has put into our hands, all the days of our life."

Later in the year 1638 King Charles I. sent the Marquis of Hamilton to Scotland as Lord High Commissioner, fully empowered to adjust all difficulties. The Covenanters demanded the abolition of the Court of High Commission, the Episcopal canons and liturgy, and the summoning of a free assembly of the Scottish Church and a free Scottish Parliament. In accordance with his instructions, the Lord High Commissioner evaded a reply to the Scottish demands, for the purpose of giving the king time to assemble his troops to force the Scots to obedience.

Charles I. suddenly promised to grant the Scottish demands; and an assembly of the Scottish Church was summoned, which convened at Glasgow, November 21, 1638, under the presidency of the Marquis of Hamilton as Lord High Commissioner. Several days afterward an effort was made to bring the Episcopal bishops to trial. The Marquis of Hamilton then withdrew, and ordered the assembly to disperse. The assembly refused to obey, and proceeded with the trial of the bishops, deposing all of them, and excommunicating eight of them. The assembly also abolished the Episcopal canons and liturgy, and repealed all the acts of assemblies since 1606.

The Earl of Huntley ruled the Highlands of Scotland as the king's lieutenant. The Highlanders had rejected the Covenant, and the Covenanters resolved to force them to accept it. A strong army, consisting largely of veterans who had served as auxiliaries in the cause of the German Protestants in the Thirty Years' War, was raised and placed under the command of the Earl of Montrose, who subdued the Highlanders after a brief campaign, and compelled them to acknowled the authority of the Covenanters.

Another army of Scottish Covenanters under General Leslie, who had served under the valiant King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in the Thirty Years' War, was sent to oppose the royal army which King Charles I. was leading northward to reduce the Covenanters to submission. General Leslie took an admirable position commanding the king's line of march; and Charles I., perceiving that he would certainly be defeated in case he attacked the Scottish general, consented to treat with General Leslie for peace. By the treaty known as the *Pacification of Berwick*, June 9, 1639, it was agreed that the questions at issue between the king and the Scottish subjects should be referred to a free assembly for adjustment, and that in the meantime both armies should be disbanded and the Scottish fortresses surrendered to the king.

An assembly was summoned and convened at Edinburgh, and this assembly ratified all that the Glasgow assembly had done. The Scottish Parliament assembled June 2. 1640, confirmed the acts of the Edinburgh and Glasgow assemblies, and ordered every Scot to sign the Covenant on penalty of severe punishment. King Charles I. adjourned the Scottish Parliament; but it assembled again in spite of him, and appealed to France for assistance. Upon hearing of this action of the Scottish Parliament, the king sent Lord Loudon, one of the Scottish commissioners, to imprisonment in the Tower, and mede preparations to invade Scotland.

The king's abitrary treatment of the

Scots had aroused a strong sympathy in England for them, as the English saw that the Covenanters were fighting in the cause of religious freedom against arbitrary royal power. Charles I. therefore had much trouble in raising an army in England to subdue the Scots, and the one which he collected was mutinous and discontented. But the Scots raised a strong force, which crossed the border into England, August 20, 1640, and took possession of Durham, Tynemouth and Shields without striking a blow; while the Scottish army at home seized the Castles of Edinburgh and Dumbarton. King Charles I. was again obliged to treat with the Scots; and by the Treaty of Ripon he granted all the demands of the Covenanters, while both armies were disbanded. The king visited Edinburgh, and summoned the Scottish Parliament, but he made no effort to interfere with its action, and confirmed its right to meet once in three years, A. D. 1641.

In the meantime the constitutional struggle in England was renewed with increased vigor, and matters were speedily brought to a crisis. When the zealous Scots, who went forth to battle with prayer, and who had imbibed the spirit as well as the faith of John Knox, had marched into England and threatened York, King Charles I. found himself obliged to summon another Parliament, after an interval of eleven years, to solicit aid against the Scotch rebels.

The Parliament just summoned, instead of voting supplies against the rebellious Scots, which they only consented to do upon condition of a redress of grievances, began to attack the king's unlawful assumptions and to discuss the grievances of the English people. In a fit of exasperation, Charles I. dissolved this Parliament after a stormy session of three weeks. Said St. John, one of its members: "Things must go worse before they go better." They quickly went worse.

A Great Council of Peers met at York as a last expedient, but accomplished nothing except delay. The advancing Scots had reached Newcastle and were on the march for York. Archbishop Laud was mobbed in London, and the Court of High Commission was broken up at St. Paul's Cathedral. All England was on the verge of revolt against the king, whose necessities forced him to summon another Parliament.

This Parliament, which assembled November 3, 1640, is known in history as the *Long Parliament*, on account of the extraordinary length of its existence, which lasted thirteen years. Its leading members were Sir Arthur Haslerig, John Hampden, John Pym and Oliver Cromwell, who were opposed to absolute monarchical power and Episcopal church government, and who were staunch advocates of republican or popular institutions.

Instead of affording the king any assistance against the Scotch insurgents, the Long Parliament entered into a secret league with them. Parliament next impeached the Earl of Strafford for high treason, in endeavoring to overthrow the constitutional liberties of England; but the letter of the law provided no penalty for this worst of political crimes, restricting its punishments to offenses against the king's person. Both Houses of Parliament therefore passed a *Bill of Attainder*. The king vainly endeavored to save his favorite Minister. The Commons were resolved upon his destruction. After a trial of seventy days, and a dignified and eloquent defense, the Earl of Strafford was declared guilty and condemned to death. After much hesitation, and in a moment of weakness, the king signed the death-warrant; and the unfortunate Earl of Strafford was beheaded on Tower Hill, May 12, 1641. He died with firmness and resolution. The popular joy and relief manifested itself in shouts of triumph, and bonfires blazed in every city of England.

Thus was literally executed the threat of John Pym, one of the most active of the Puritan members of the House of Commons, who, when the Earl of Strafford had left the popular party to serve the king, had said to him: "You have left us; but we will not leave you while your head is on your shoulders."

The king's signature to the death-warrant had been extorted from him, but no suffering of his own caused Charles I. so severe a pang as the execution of his faithful friend and servant. Even after signing the warrant the king had sent a letter to the House of Lords, entreating them to confer with the House of Commons, and to obtain the consent of that body to a mitigation of the sentence or a delay in its execution; but the Commons were inexorable.

Archbishop Laud was also impeached by the Commons, and was imprisoned in the Tower, while all his property was confiscated. Three years afterward he was tried at the bar of the House of Lords, for high treason in endeavoring to destroy the religious liberties of the people of England. He was declared guilty, and was beheaded January 10, 1645.

On the very day of the sentence of the Earl of Strafford to death, King Charles I. also signed a bill of vast importance, providing that Parliament should not be dissolved, prorogued or adjourned without its own consent, and that a Parliament should be held at least once in three years.

The Long Parliament went about the work of reform in earnest. The Courts of the Star Chamber and High Commission were abolished; patriots were released from prison; the judgment against John Hampden was annulled; ship money and arbitrary taxation were again forbidden; and the king's instruments for oppression were brought to trial, from the judges who had decided against Hampden to the sheriffs and custom-house officials who had collected the illegal taxes. The Scots, whose military operations had made these proceedings of the English Parliament possible, were declared to have been "ever good subjects;" and a gift of sixty thousand pounds, in addition to their pay, was voted to them for their brotherly aid to the friends of liberty in England. Perceiving the storm that was rising against them, the Episcopal bishops voluntarily relinquished their seats in the House of Lords, to avoid the expulsion which the popular party demanded.

In the meantime, during this memorable year 1641, a dangerous rebellion broke out in Ireland, as a result of the tyranny inaugurated by the Earl of Strafford as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland in 1633. This tyranny had lasted seven years, and the Irish took advantage of that statesman's execution in 1641 to assert their freedom by a rising to overthrow English authority in the Emerald Isle. Religious zeal added bitterness to political animosity.

The plan for a general Irish revolt was inaugurated by Roger O'Moore, who had served in the Spanish army, and who was full of zeal for the Roman Catholic Church. He imagined that, by a sudden rising of the Catholic Irish, all the English and Scotch Protestant settlers in Ireland might be massacred or driven from Irish soil, and the independence of Erin restored. As a part of his plan was the entire restoration of the Catholic religion in Ireland, he counted upon the aid of the Catholic lords of the English Pale, most of whom joined in the plot, and concerted measures with Moore and Phelim O'Neill, the most powerful native Irish chief.

The insurrection was to break out in all parts of Ireland on the same day, when the forts were to be seized by the Irish rebels upon a given signal. The secret had been well kept until the night before the execution of the conspiracy, when it was betrayed by an Irishman named Conolly, who informed the English authorities of the intended attack upon Dublin Castle, in which a large quantity of arms and ammunition were stored. Several of the conspirators were instantly arrested, but it was too late to check the progress of the revolt, which burst forth with tremendous fury, October 23, 1641.

The English and Scotch colonists of Ulster, who were totally unaware of the existence of such a dreadful conspiracy, suddenly found themselves surrounded by mobs of infuriated Irishmen armed with staves, pitchforks and other rude weapons, which they brandished aloft with the most frightful yells. One of the most barbarous

and brutal massacres recorded in all history ensued, sparing no age, sex or condition.

Without provocation and without resistance, the defenseless English and Scotch settlers, being Protestants, were murdered in cold blood by their nearest Irish neighbors, with whom they had long maintained a continued intercourse of kindness and good offices. The houses of these settlers were set on fire or leveled with the ground. Where the unfortunate owners endeavored to defend themselves, their wives and their children, they all perished together in the flames.

In the midst of these atrocities, the sacred name of religion resounded on every side, not to stay the hands of the assassins, but to enforce their blows, and to harden their hearts against every movement of human sympathy. The English and Scotch settlers, as heretics, abhorred of God and detested by all good Catholics, were marked by the Irish priests for slaughter.

The flames of rebellion spread from Ulster to every part of Ireland. In the provinces of Leinster, Munster and Connaught the English and Scotch who were not massacred were driven from their homes, robbed of all their clothes, and left exposed naked and defenseless to perish by the wintry frosts and storms.

Only Dublin remained to the English, and the failure of the plot there preserved in Ireland the remains of the English name. The roads were crowded with multitudes of wretched refugees hastening to that city; and when the gates were opened these fugitives presented to the view of the astonished inhabitants a scene of misery which words fail to describe.

The number of English and Scotch Protestants who thus fell victims to Irish Catholic bigotry has been estimated at from forty thousand to two hundred thousand. The war which followed this rebellion continued ten years, and reduced Ireland to extreme poverty and misery. Portions of the unhappy country that escaped the ravages of fire and sword were desolated by famine and pestilence. The plague ravaged Ireland more or less during the whole of this unhappy period, and was supposed to have been caused by the unwholesome food which the people were obliged to eat.

Parliament accused the court, and particularly the queen, of instigating the Irish rebellion and the massacre, and declared that the Catholic and Episcopal bishops and the court had entered into a plot for the destruction of religious liberty in England. So thoroughly did Parliament distrust the king that it took upon its own hands the task of dealing with the Irish rebellion.

King Charles I., exasperated at the increasing demands of the Commons, perpetrated one rash act which hastened civil war. He had for some time looked on bitterly but helplessly while the absolutism in which he had sought to intrench himself was rudely swept away. Conscious that his throne was tottering to its fall, he endeavored by one bold stroke to crush all opposition to his will and to reëstablish his lost authority.

The king's blow was aimed directly at the House of Commons. The Commons had refused to surrender five of their boldest leaders—Haslerig, Hollis, Hampden, Pym and Strode—at the king's demand; and the next day Charles I., with three hundred soldiers, went in person to the hall of the House of Commons to arrest these five leaders, January 5, 1642. Leaving the soldiers outside the chamber, the king entered the hall alone, all the members of the House rising to receive him. The Speaker vacated the chair, and the king occupied it. After seating himself he told the Commons that he was sorry for the occasion that had forced him thither; that he had come in person to seize the five members whom he had accused of high treason, seeing that they would not deliver them to his sergeant-at-arms. He then looked over the hall to see if the accused were present; but they had escaped a few minutes before he had entered, and the king remarked: "I see my birds have flown." With the expectation that the Commons would send the accused members to him, and a threat to secure them for him-

self if they would not, the baffled king abruptly left the chamber.

Thus disappointed, perplexed, and not knowing on whom to rely, the king next proceeded to the Common Council of the city of London, and made his complaints to that body. On his way thither he was greeted with cries of "Privilege! privilege!" from the angry populace. The Common Council only answered his complaints with a contemptuous silence; and, on his return, one of the populace, more insolent than the others, cried out: "To your tents, O Israel!" This was a watch-word among the ancient Jews when they intended to abandon their kings.

By his rash act Charles I. offered a flagrant insult to the House of Commons and violated a fundamental law of the realm. The crisis had now arrived. The occasion being too solemn for business, the House of Commons adjourned. The next day the king issued a proclamation branding the five accused members as traitors and ordering their arrest. London was in a tumult, and the city rose as one man for the defense of the accused. The citizens sheltered the accused members, and their train-bands held the city and guarded the House of Commons. These train-bands escorted the historical five back to their seats amid the cheers of the excited populace, the river and the streets by which they passed being guarded by cannon and men-at-arms.

After returning to Windsor, King Charles I. began to reflect on the rashness of his recent proceedings, and when too late he resolved to make some atonement. He accordingly apologized to Parliament in a humiliating message, in which he informed the Commons that he desisted from his recent violent proceedings against the accused members, and assured them that upon all occasions he would be as careful of their privileges as of his crown or his life. Thus, while the king's former violence had rendered him hateful to the Commons, his present submission rendered him contemptible.

From this time Parliament encroached more and more on the royal prerogative, until scarcely a vestige of monarchical power remained. The Commons now demanded that the appointment of Ministers of State, and of military and naval commanders, should depend upon their approval. The Commons also required that the Tower of London, several of the sea-ports, and the management of the navy, should also be given into their possession. When Parliament demanded that the king should relinquish the command of the army for a certain period, His Majesty angrily replied: "No, not for one hour!" This refusal dispelled all hopes for a peaceful settlement of difficulties, and both parties resolved upon an appeal to arms.

The breach between King Charles I. and Parliament continually widened; and in the summer of 1642 the king withdrew from London and retired to York, where he declared war against Parliament. On the 25th of August, 1642, Charles erected the royal standard at Nottingham, but it was soon blown down by the violence of the wind. For the next six years English soil was reddened with English blood shed in civil war. Englishmen fought against Englishmen to decide the momentous issue of constitutional liberty against royal prerogative—the question of the inalienable rights of the English people against the "divine right of kings," thus forced upon them by the arbitrary action of the royal House of Stuart.

On the side of the king were the nobility and the gentry, the Roman Catholic and Episcopal clergy, and all the advocates of the Established Church and of absolute monarchy. The whole of the king's party were called *Cavaliers*. On the side of Parliament were the Puritans, all who advocated a reform in Church and State, and all believers in republican principles. All the adherents of Parliament received from their enemies the nickname of *Roundheads*, because their hair was cropped close to their heads. London and the other great cities of England were on the side of Parliament, excepting Oxford, which remained loyal to the king.

The opponents of the king were divided into several factions. The Independents, who were Puritans in religious belief and republicans in political faith, aimed at the overthrow of the monarchy; while the Presbyterians, or moderate party, merely wished to put an end to the abuses of the royal power, but not to deprive the king of his crown.

The two great parties which were now arrayed against each other in civil war—the one democratic, and the other aristocratic; the one striving for progress and reform, and the other adhering to the traditions of the past—have continued to struggle for supremacy to the present day, under the names of Whig and Tory, Liberal and Conservative.

The royal and Parliamentary parties differed from each other almost as much in dress as in principles. The Cavalier costume consisted of a tunic of silk or satin with slashed sleeves; an elegant lace collar adorning the neck, and a short cloak hanging gracefully over one shoulder. Short full trowsers reached almost to the top of the wide boots, which extended half-way up the calf of the leg. The head was covered with a broad-brimmed beaver hat, adorned with an elegant band and a plume of feathers. The hair hung in curls over the shoulders, and the beard was trimmed to a point; while the *love-locks*, the tress on the left side, were tied up by a pretty colored ribbon. The love-locks were so obnoxious to the Puritans that John Pym wrote a quarto volume against them. The Puritan Roundheads wore a cloak of sad-colored brown or black, a plain linen collar laid carelessly down on the plaited cloth, and a hat with a high, steeple-shaped crown over their closely clipped or lank straight hair.

The Cavaliers were as gay in their manners as in their dress, thus presenting a marked contrast to the gloomy fanaticism of the Roundheads. The rigid severity of the Puritans tolerated no recreations, except such as were afforded by the singing of hymns and Psalms. They looked upon theaters, dances, and all other amusements as sinful frivolities. They regarded horse-racing and bear-baiting—popular diversions of that period—as wicked enormities.

The commanders of the king's armies were his nephew, Prince Rupert of the Palatinate, and the Marquis of Newcastle. Prince Rupert was the son of the king's sister Elizabeth and her husband, the unfortunate Elector-Palatine Frederick V., who had tried to become King of Bohemia, and whose action brought on the great Thirty Years' War in Germany. Prince Rupert was a brave soldier, but was too rash and impetuous to be a good general.

The popular leaders on the Parliamentary side were John Hampden, John Pym and Sir Henry Vane, the last of whom had several years before been Governor of the Puritan colony of Massachusetts Bay in New England. The chief commanders of the armies of Parliament were Sir Thomas Fairfax and the Earl of Essex, the latter of whom was the son of Queen Elizabeth's wayward favorite. As the struggle advanced, Oliver Cromwell became the rising star on the Parliamentary side, as we shall presently see.

At the beginning of the civil war Parliament appointed lieutenants for all the counties of England, and levied troops in the king's name for the defense of the kingdom against the king himself. The armies which Parliament had raised to crush the Catholic rebellion in Ireland were retained in England and placed under the command of the Earl of Essex. Citizens brought their plate, and women their ornaments, even their thimbles and wedding-rings, to be melted up in the service of the "good cause" against the "Malignants," as the Cavaliers were called by their Puritan foes. On the royal side the queen sailed for Holland to pawn the crown jewels for arms and ammunition.

While the king raised the royal standard at Nottingham, August 25, 1642, the Earl of Essex mustered the Parliamentary forces at Northampton. During the first two years of the war the king's forces were victorious in almost every encounter with the undisciplined troops in the service of Parlia-

ment; but as the latter gained skill and experience they became superior to any troops that the king could bring into the field.

The first great battle of the civil war was fought at Edge Hill, in Warwickshire, October 23, 1642, between the royal army under Prince Rupert and the Parliamentary forces under the Earl of Essex; about five thousand men being left dead on the field, and the battle being indecisive.

The campaign of 1643 was generally favorable to the royal cause. Early in the spring the Parliamentary forces under the Earl of Essex captured Reading, the capital of Berkshire; but about the same time the royal generals conquered Cornwall in the West and the four northern counties—Durham, Northumberland, Cumberland and Westmoreland. On June 18, 1643, the Parliamentary party experienced a severe loss in the death of the brave, upright and illustrious John Hampden, who was killed in a skirmish with Prince Rupert at Chalgrove Field, in Oxfordshire.

The king's forces were victorious at Stratton Hill, in Cornwall; at Atherton, in Yorkshire; at Lansdowne Hill, near Bath; and at Roundway Down, near Devizes, in Wiltshire. By the capture of the important city of Bristol, Prince Rupert became master of the West of England. The king besieged Gloucester, which was relieved by the Earl of Essex, September 5, 1643.

In the first battle of Newbury, in Berkshire, September 20, 1643, the royal army was repulsed, and the good Lucius Cary, Lord Falkland, was slain. He was a true patriot, and had opposed the tyrannical assumptions of King Charles I.; but when Parliament attempted to deprive the king of every vestige of power, and to overthrow the Established Church, he took sides with the king, hoping that Charles I. would eventually concede the just demands of the English people. He therefore fought on the side of the king. On the morning of the fatal day he was heard to remark: "I am weary of the times, and foresee much misery to my country, but believe that I shall be out of it ere night."

In 1644 the king secured the aid of some Irish Roman Catholics, but his plan to bring an Irish army into England to slaughter his English foes on their own soil was resented by his own English supporters, and large numbers of his officers of all grades resigned their commissions in the royal army and deserted to the Parliamentary side. In the same year Parliament secured the alliance of the Scots by entering into the *Solemn League and Covenant* with them, by which both parties bound themselves to strive for the extirpation of "popery and prelacy, superstition, heresy, schism and profaneness," and to uphold the rights of Parliaments in proper regard to the royal authority.

In the meantime the king called a Parliament of his own at Oxford, to oppose the designs of the Parliament at Westminster; but after this shadow of a Parliament had voted a grant of money to the king it was prorogued, and was never again convened.

Victory crowned the arms of Parliament after the sturdy Huntingdonshire Puritan, Oliver Cromwell, took the field in the cause of God and liberty, at the head of his invincible *Ironsides*—a body of pious cavalrymen, who spent their leisure in prayer, Psalm-singing and Bible-reading.

An army of Scotch Covenanters marched into England to assist the forces of Parliament, while King Charles I. called over his troops from Ireland. A large force of these royal troops were defeated and captured at Nantwich by Sir Thomas Fairfax, who afterward united with the Scots in laying siege to York. Prince Rupert advanced with the royal army to raise the siege; but he was overwhelmingly defeated at Marston Moor, about five miles from York, July 2, 1644, with the loss of all his artillery, Cromwell's Ironsides being chiefly instrumental in achieving the Parliamentary victory. This great defeat of the royal army was partly due to the impetuosity of Prince Rupert. The battle of Marston Moor gave the Parliamentary forces possession of the whole North of England.

The royalists defeated the Parliamenta-

rians under Sir William Waller at Cropredy Bridge, in Oxfordshire; and in the second battle of Newbury, October 27, 1644, the king broke through the Parliamentary army under the Earl of Manchester, and reached Oxford.

The Puritans now banished the Book of Common Prayer from religious worship, and substituted the Calvinistic form of worship and church government for the Episcopal. They also caused images and ornaments to be taken from the churches, and forbade festivities. But the Puritans were divided into two great parties—the Presbyterians and the Independents—between whom the greatest animosity already prevailed. The Presbyterians, or moderate Puritans, inclined toward the support of monarchical and aristocratic institutions, and longed for the establishment of their Church, to the exclusion of all others, and opposed toleration. The Independents, or radical Puritans, held democratic or republican views in regard to civil government, and desired toleration for all Christian faiths.

Oliver Cromwell belonged to the Independents; while the Earl of Essex, who held the chief command of the Parliamentary forces, belonged to the Presbyterians. The Independents caused the enactment, by Parliament, of the *Self-denying Ordinance*, which allowed no member of Parliament to hold a command in the army. The Earl of Essex was therefore compelled to resign; and Sir Thomas Fairfax, an able general, was appointed to the chief command of the army of Parliament. Cromwell, who had been one of the most enthusiastic supporters of the Self-denying Ordinance, hastened to resign his command; but through the influence of Fairfax, who felt that Cromwell's services in the army were necessary to insure the overthrow of the royal party, the Parliament dispensed with the Self-denying Ordinance in Cromwell's case, and he was permitted to retain his position.

With the consent of Fairfax, the commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary forces, Cromwell now introduced the *New Model* of discipline into the Parliamentary army. His first aim was to collect a force of honest, self-respecting, God-fearing men; and another such an army was probably never seen. The soldiers spent their leisure hours in studying the Scriptures and in mutual exhortations to a godly life. Wherever they moved they respected every man's house and field, and honestly paid for all provisions.

The king's army, on the contrary, though superior at first in military discipline, was worse than swarms of grasshoppers to the districts which it visited. The wild young Cavaliers under the command of Prince Rupert had learned their occupation among the direful scenes of the Thirty Years' War in Germany, where the burning of villages and the devastation of harvest-fields were matters of daily occurrence. The citizen-soldiery of Parliament, called from their looms and desks, ere long acquired the necessary discipline; while the gallantry of the Cavaliers scarcely compensated the royal cause for their disgraceful misbehavior.

Some efforts at peace having failed, the civil war again burst forth with all its fury. The army of King Charles I. was completely overthrown, and his cause was utterly ruined, in the desperate battle of Naseby, in Northamptonshire, June 14, 1645. The Parliamentary forces were commanded by Fairfax, Skippon, Cromwell and Ireton; and the royalists by the king, Prince Rupert, Lord Astley and Sir Marmaduke Langdale. The defeat of the royal army was caused, in a great measure, by the rashness and impatience of Prince Rupert, who overruled the more prudent judgment of the king. Rupert, with the right wing of the royal cavalry, dashed with the most fiery impetuosity upon the Parliamentary left wing, commanded by General Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law. At the same time Cromwell, with the Parliamentary right wing, assailed the royal left wing; while the centers of the two armies, led respectively by Fairfax and the king, were struggling desperately. The Parliamentary left was thoroughly annihilated, and Ireton was made a prisoner; but Rupert lost precious time in an unneces-

sary pursuit of Ireton's broken forces, when he should have gone to the aid of the king. In the meantime Cromwell with his Ironsides defeated the royal cavalry, after which he flew to the aid of the Parliamentary center, which was beginning to give way before the royalists. Cromwell and his Ironsides, who insured victory wherever they appeared, soon put the king's infantry to a total rout; and Charles I., seeing that the day was lost to his cause, retired with his shattered forces, leaving the field, all his baggage and cannon, and five thousand prisoners, in the hands of the victorious Parliamentarians.

Among the king's captured baggage were found papers revealing his plot with the Irish Catholic rebels, conceding all their wild demands on condition of their aid to the royal cause against the forces of the English Parliament.

By their victory at Naseby the Parliamentarians obtained possession of all the strong cities in the kingdom, such as Bristol, Bridgewater, Bath and Chester. Exeter was besieged and taken by Fairfax, whereupon the king and his broken hosts retreated to Oxford, which Fairfax and Cromwell were preparing to besiege. Rather than be taken prisoner by his enemies, and hoping to find respect and kind treatment among his Scotch subjects, Charles I. went into the camp of the Scots at Newark May 5, 1646; but, instead of treating him as their king, the Scots placed a guard around him and kept him as a prisoner. The fanatical Scotch preachers, unable to restrain their zeal, insulted him to his face, and, in sermons preached in his presence, bitterly reproached him as a wicked tyrant.

One of these fanatical Scotch preachers ordered the fifty-second Psalm to be sung:

"Why dost thou, tyrant, boast thyself,
Thy wicked deeds to praise?"

Thereupon the king stood up, and, with a dignity and meekness that affected even the rigid enthusiasts, called for the fifty-sixth Psalm, which was sung accordingly:

"Have mercy, Lord, on me, I pray,
For men would me devour!"

In Scotland in the meantime the Marquis of Montrose had deserted the Covenanters and raised an army of Irish and Highlanders, with which he defeated the Covenanters at Tibbermuir, near Perth, in 1644; at Alford, in Aberdeenshire, in 1645; and at Kilsyth, in Stirlingshire, in 1645. But he was utterly defeated at Philiphaugh, near Selkirk, by the Covenanters under General Leslie, September 15, 1645.

The captive king was now obliged to issue orders for all his troops to submit to the triumphant Parliament. The venerable Marquis of Worcester, then over eighty-four years of age, held out in Rayland Castle until reduced to the greatest extremity, and was the last man in England to lay down his arms.

Although the Great Civil War was now virtually over, religious dissensions raged with the greatest fury. As we have already seen, the king's enemies were divided into the Presbyterian and Independent parties. The most inveterate animosity now existed between these two factions. The Presbyterians had a majority in Parliament, while the Independents had a majority in the army. The Presbyterian majority in Parliament proceeded to reorganize the Church of England on the Presbyterian plan, while the Independents contended for religious freedom and a separation of Church and State.

The perils that had menaced civil liberty in England had passed away when the king surrendered to Lord Leven, the Scottish commander at Newark; but the religious intolerance to which the Presbyterian majority in Parliament still clung became well-nigh as dangerous to the state as the absolutism which had gone down in blood on the field of Naseby. The Presbyterians had abolished the civil despotism, only to impose a religious tyranny upon the English nation.

The Presbyterian and Independent parties each sought reconciliation and alliance with King Charles I., with the view of advancing its own success; the Independents on the basis of religious toleration, and the Presbyterians on the adoption of the Scotch Cove-

nant. The royal captive rejected the offers of both parties, because he hoped to induce one or the other to accept his own terms. He wrote: "I am not without hope that I shall be able to draw either the Presbyterians or the Independents to side with me for extirpating one another, so that I shall be really king again." A Presbyterian asked: "What will become of us, now that the king has rejected our proposals?" An Independent replied: "What would have become of us had he accepted them?"

The king believed that he had freed himself from the hostility of the Scots by conceding all their demands, and that he might count more on the affection and good will of the subjects among whom he had been born than of the new people among whom his father had come as a foreigner; but he still refused to sign the Covenant, or to accept the terms which the English Parliament offered him. The Scots, the royalist officers, and even the queen, urged him with tears to provide for his safety in this way.

When the English Parliament was informed that the king was in the hands of the Scots it began to negotiate with them for the possession of his person. As he obstinately refused to sign the Covenant, the Scots finally surrendered him into the hands of commissioners appointed by the English Parliament, upon receiving four hundred thousand pounds sterling, the amount due them as pay, February, 1647. The captive king selected two of the commissioners, Mr. Herbert and Mr. Harrington, to attend him, in place of his own servants, who had been dismissed. The Scots were ever afterward ashamed of the reproach of having sold their sovereign to his inveterate foes.

The Presbyterians, thinking that their victory was now assured, assumed a more decided stand by establishing presbyteries throughout England, and voting to disband the old Parliamentary army, which was Independent, and to organize a new one with Presbyterians at its head; but the officers and troops of the old army, instigated by Oliver Cromwell, the leader of the Independents, refused to disband without an assurance of religious toleration, or until its work was completed and English freedom established on a secure basis.

Parliament was then more dangerous than the king, as it enacted a law in its sectarian zeal more ferocious than even the persecuting statutes of Henry VIII. or "Bloody Mary." By this terrible statute the death penalty was fixed upon all who should deny the doctrine of the Trinity, or Christ's divinity, or the inspiration of the Scriptures, or the resurrection of the body; while persons who believed that "man by nature hath free will to turn to God," or who denied the lawfulness of "Church government by Presbytery," were to be punished with imprisonment. Though this terrible statute was never enforced, its enactment showed the danger and justified extraordinary means of resistance.

The triumph of Parliament under its Presbyterian majority was of short duration; as a body of troopers under an officer named Joyce, secretly sent for that purpose by Cromwell, surrounded Holmby House, in which the king was detained under the charge of the commissioners of Parliament, and placed him in the custody of the army, June, 1647. Parliament openly charged Cromwell with inciting the act, and Cromwell did not deny the charge, but marched to London and subjected the city and Parliament to his authority.

Cromwell now reinstated the captive king at Hampton Court, where he lived with dignity and with every appearance of personal freedom, though under guard. Cromwell and his son-in-law, General Ireton, desired to spare the king's life, and entered into negotiations with the royal captive; but they discovered, as Parliament had before discovered, that the king's word and promises meant nothing. With his characteristic insincerity, Charles I. intended to violate his plighted word and to deceive the victorious party in whose mercy he was. Had he possessed the least sincerity he might have saved his life and his throne, but his treachery to both Presbyterians and Independents sealed his fate.

The queen wrote a letter to her royal husband, reproaching him for having made too great concessions to "those villains." These concessions were mainly that Cromwell should be Lord Lieutenant of Ireland for life; that an army should be kept in that island under the command of Cromwell himself; and that Cromwell should be honored with a garter. The queen's letter was intercepted, and was then forwarded to the captive king.

Cromwell and Ireton, disguised as troopers, found the king's letter in answer to the queen's in the possession of the messenger at the Blue Boar Inn in Holborn. In his letter the king told his wife that she should leave him to manage matters, as he was better informed of all the circumstances than she could possibly be; but that she might be entirely easy in regard to all the concessions that he should make to "those villains;" as he should know in due time how to deal with "the rogue," who, instead of a garter, should be fitted with a hempen cord. This letter sealed the king's fate. Cromwell thus discovered that he was dealing with one who would violate every pledge that he had made as soon as he was reinstated on his throne, and would make a jest of putting a halter around his neck as the practical fulfillment of his promise of the garter.

In November, 1647, the captive king, eluding his guards, escaped to the Isle of Wight, whose governor, Colonel Hammond, conducted him to Carisbrook Castle, where he was detained as a prisoner, though treated with every mark of respect, as before; but when the royal captive attempted to escape from Carisbrook Castle he was deprived of communication with his friends, and even of the attendance of his servants.

The captive Charles I. was still stirring up war between his English and Scotch kingdoms by secret agents, while royalist outbreaks convulsed every portion of England. The Scotch Covenanters, ashamed of the reproach of having sold their sovereign, sent an army under the Duke of Hamilton into England, in 1648. But Cromwell routed the invading army of Scots at Preston, in Lancashire, with terrific slaughter, August 18, 1648; after which he pushed across the border into Scotland, and reinstated the Marquis of Argyle in power at Edinburgh. In the meantime General Sir Thomas Fairfax had quelled the royalist risings in Kent and Essex.

In September, 1648, Parliament entered into negotiations with the captive king, and the commissioners of Parliament were moved to tears at sight of the change that had taken place in the king's aspect and at beholding his "gray and discrowned head." Cromwell, after subduing the Scots, returned to England and hastened to London; and a body of troopers secretly sent by him again seized the king and confined him in Hurst Castle, on the coast of Hampshire, opposite the Isle of Wight, to the utmost consternation of the Presbyterian majority in Parliament, December 5, 1648.

The following day Parliament accepted the king's concessions as a "sufficient foundation for a treaty of peace." The next day Cromwell, anticipating the design of Parliament to destroy him, and resolving to annihilate their power by a decisive blow, a *coup d' état*, caused Colonel Pride with two regiments to surround the Parliament House and to exclude all the Presbyterian members from their seats, thus leaving sixty Independents as the only members of Parliament, which was thereafter known as the "Rump Parliament." By this arbitrary proceeding—known as *Colonel Pride's Purge*—Cromwell and the army, at the head of the Independent party, triumphed over the Presbyterian majority in the Long Parliament, December 7, 1648.

The "Rump Parliament" passed an act declaring it high-treason for a king to levy war against the people's representatives; and declared also that "the people are, under God, the origin of all just power," and that "the Commons of England in Parliament assembled, being chosen by and representing the people, are the supreme authority of the nation." The "Rump Parliament" also, by a unanimous vote, impeached

"Charles Stuart" in the name of the people of England, and resolved to bring him to trial for "the treason, blood and mischief he was guilty of."

Colonel Harrison, the son of a butcher, was sent to bring the king from Hurst Castle to Windsor, and thence to London, where he was confined in St. James Palace. The people were greatly affected at the sight of the change in his appearance, and he stood a lonely figure of majesty in distress, which even his adversaries could not behold without reverence and compassion. He had long been attended only by an old decrepid servant, Sir Philip Warwick, who could only deplore his master's fate, without being able to avenge him. Charles I. was now treated with more severity. His guards and attendants were ordered to treat him no longer as if he were a sovereign, and to call him simply "Charles Stuart." His own servants were not permitted to wait on him at table; and common soldiers, attired in armor, were appointed to bring his meals to him. The fallen king was much shocked by this disrespect, but soon recovered his composure, and said: "Nothing is so contemptible as a despised king."

The Duke of Hamilton, the leader of the Scotch Covenanters, was reserved for the same punishment as King Charles I., and upon leaving Windsor threw himself at the king's feet, exclaiming: "My dear master!" The unhappy king raised him up, embraced him tenderly and replied, while tears ran down his cheeks: "I have indeed been a dear master to you." These were severe distresses, but Charles I. could never persuade himself that his subjects would accuse him and try him as a criminal—an indignity to which royalty had not until then been subjected; but expected every moment to fall a victim to private assassination.

On January 20, 1649, a *High Court of Justice*—consisting of one hundred and thirty-three members, and presided over by John Bradshaw, an eminent lawyer—assembled in Westminster Hall to try the king. Never was there a more august assemblage in that historic old edifice. The counsel for the Commons opened the case by stating that "Charles Stuart, being admitted King of England and intrusted with a limited power, yet, from a wicked design to erect an unlimited and tyrannical government, has traitorously and maliciously levied war against the present Parliament and the people whom they represent, and is therefore impeached as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and a public and implacable enemy to the Commonwealth."

When, during the calling of the roll of the members of the court, the name of General Sir Thomas Fairfax was mentioned, a voice cried out from among the spectators: "He has more wit than to be here!" When the articles of impeachment were read declaring that the king was accused in the name of the people of England, the same voice replied: "Not a tenth part of them!" The soldiers were ordered to fire at the spot whence the voice had proceeded; but when it was discovered that the voice was that of Lady Fairfax, they, in consideration of her sex and rank, did not fire. Lady Fairfax had been an ardent politician, and had urged her husband to oppose the king on the battle-field; but now, perceiving that the struggle was likely to end in the sacrifice of the king, and in the exaltation of Oliver Cromwell, both she and her husband heartily repented of the part they had taken against their sovereign.

Charles I. appeared more majestic in this hour of peril than he had ever appeared in the days of his power and prosperity. He replied with dignity, but with mildness. As the "Lord's Anointed," he persistently denied the jurisdiction of the court, claimed himself to be beyond the power of all courts and all Parliaments, and obstinately reasserted that his kingly rights were derived from the "Supreme Majesty of Heaven." There is no doubt that Charles I. firmly and sincerely believed what he asserted, and that he thought he was only guarding a sacred trust which God had conferred upon him, contrary as this theory was to the entire spirit of the English Constitution, as well as destructive to the safety and just

rights of the English people. Thirty-two witnesses were examined; and, on January 27, 1649, after a trial of seven days, the royal prisoner was declared guilty and was condemned to death as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer and public enemy." The death-warrant was signed two days later, and the king was ordered to prepare for death the next day.

The Scots protested against this trial of their hereditary sovereign; the French and Dutch ambassadors at London interceded in the king's behalf; and the Prince of Wales sent a blank sheet of paper, with his name and seal affixed, upon which Parliament might write any terms it chose as the price of sparing his father's life. But all was in vain, as the Commons were inexorable.

On his way through the hall, upon entering and leaving the court-room, during the sessions of the trial, the fallen king was insulted by the soldiery and the mob, who cried out: "Justice! justice! execution! execution!" Upon one of these occasions, one more rude than his companions, even went so far as to spit in the king's face. The king bore all their insolence with patience, saying: "Poor souls, they would treat their generals the same way for a sixpence." Some of the populace expressed their sorrow in sighs and tears. One soldier, more compassionate than his fellows, uttered a blessing in the king's behalf; whereupon an officer struck the soldier to the ground. The king, observing this affair, said: "The punishment, methinks, exceeds the offense."

On the day preceding the execution, Charles I. was permitted to see his son Henry and his daughter Elizabeth. His other two sons, Charles and James, were in Holland; and his other daughter, Henrietta, was in France. Henry was only seven years old. His father said to this little boy as he sat upon his knee: "Mark, my child, what I say. They will cut off my head, and will want, perhaps, to make thee king; but thou must not be king so long as thy brothers Charles and James are alive. Therefore, I charge thee, do not be made a king by them." The child, in his innocence, looked earnestly into his father's face, and exclaimed: "I will be torn in pieces first!" This answer made the king shed tears.

King Charles I. was taken to the place of execution, in front of the palace of Whitehall, January 30, 1649. He ascended the scaffold with a firm step; and in his last moments he reasserted his "divine rights," and declared that "the people have no right to any part in the government, that being a thing nothing pertaining to them." Addressing those around him, he declared himself innocent toward his people, and forgave his enemies. Turning to Bishop Juxon, he said: "I go from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can take place." The bishop replied: "You exchange a temporal for an eternal crown; a good exchange." The king then laid his head upon the block, saying to Bishop Juxon: "Remember." One of the executioners then cut off the king's "gray and discrowned head;" and the other, holding it aloft, exclaimed: "This is the head of a traitor!" Many of the spectators wept at the horrid spectacle, and a groan of pity and horror proceeded from the vast multitude.

The execution of Charles I. aroused horror and indignation throughout Europe, and the English ambassadors in the different European capitals were driven away or murdered. From 1660 to 1859 the 30th of January was annually commemorated as the "Day of King Charles the Martyr," by special services in the Church of England, and by solemn mourning on the part of the English royal family.

Charles I. was the only King of England who was condemned to death and executed under the sentence of the law. This was not a time for calm measures, when England was in the throes of a great political revolution. The proper course would have been to depose the king, as he had violated his coronation oath. Charles I. fell a victim to the spirit of the age, which he obstinately persisted in refusing to understand.

A few days after the execution of Charles

EXECUTION OF CHARLES I.

I., the monarchy and the House of Lords were abolished by the Commons; and the "Rump Parliament," upheld by Oliver Cromwell and the army, governed the country. The new republic was styled *The Commonwealth of England.* The Commons declared it high-treason to acknowledge the Prince of Wales King of England, and ordered a new Great Seal to be engraved perils gathered thick and fast around the new Republic of England. The Dutch Republic hastened to recognize Prince Charles, who was then living in exile at the Hague, as King of England. At home the royalists, who had been beaten into silence, looked with deadly hatred and indescribable disgust upon the Puritan Republic, and only waited for a favorable opportunity to

THE NEW GREAT SEAL OF ENGLAND.

with the legend, "The first year of freedom, by God's blessing restored, 1648."

In 1633 an equestrian statue of brass had been erected in honor of Charles I. Parliament now ordered this, the first equestrian statue in England, to be broken in pieces and sold for old brass.

The execution of Charles I. involved Parliament in a new and greater difficulty, and make an effort to restore the fallen monarchy. But the first attempts at a royalist rising were sternly crushed by Cromwell's iron hand. A most menacing spirit had begun to infect the army, which would have caused the wildest excesses if not checked.

An extreme faction of the army, called *Levelers*, because they held the socialistic doctrine that all men should be "leveled"

to an equality in rank and property, broke out into open mutiny; but this outbreak wes sternly quelled by Cromwell's vigorous hand.

The royalists in England, Scotland and Ireland considered Prince Charles his father's legitimate successor. Though no formidable royalist rising was undertaken in England for the time, the royalists in Ireland raised the standard of the Stuarts; while the Covenanters of Scotland, who had bound themselves to the support of monarchy, also proclaimed Prince Charles in their country. These Irish and Scotch rebellions against the English Commonwealth demanded very prompt action on the part of the republican Parliament and its great general. The strength of the Puritan Independents was in their army of fifty thousand men, and in the iron will of Oliver Cromwell, who was now appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

The royalist rebels in Ireland, under the direction of the Marquis of Ormond, speedily took every town except Dublin. Cromwell crossed over into that island with twelve thousand troops, fully resolved to stamp out every vestige of rebellion and to fully establish the anthority of the English Commonwealth. His campaign was short but terrible, and it resulted in the first thorough English conquest of the Emerald Isle. He began his Irish campaign by taking Drogheda by storm, and massacred its garrison of three thousand men, in stern retaliation for the massacre of the English and Scotch Protestant settlers in Ireland in 1641. Wexford was also taken by storm and its garrison put to the sword. Terrified by this severity, town after town opened its gates to Cromwell, or fell before his assaults if it offered any resistance. The memory of Ulster nerved every arm and hardened every heart in Cromwell's army for the dreadful work of vengeance, and every Irish royalist taken with arms in his hand was put to death.

At the end of a campaign of nine months, in 1649 and 1650, Cromwell had so completely subdued Ireland that he was able to return to England to take the field against the Scotch Covenanters, leaving his son-in-law, General Ireton, in command in Ireland. Under the sway of the English Commonwealth, all the discontented and conquered Irish chiefs that desired to do so were allowed to leave their country and to enter the service of foreign monarchs. Accordingly the Marquis of Ormond and more than forty thousand Irish royalists enlisted in the Armies of France, Spain and Austria. Large numbers of the vanquished Irish were shipped to the Barbadoes; and many of the Irish landholders who had borne arms against the English Parliament were removed to lands assigned to them in the province of Connaught and in County Clare; while Parliamentary soldiers and many other English colonists were settled in the provinces of Ulster, Munster and Leinster. As the most troublesome elements of the native population were thus drawn off, Ireland enjoyed such tranquility as she had not experienced for centuries, but the country became a land of beggars.

In Scotland, in the meantime, the brave and Loyal Marquis of Montrose had roused the Highlanders in favor of Prince Charles; but he was defeated and betrayed into the power of the Covenanters, who took him to Edinburgh and hanged him without a trial. Prince Charles disavowed the enterprise of the Marquis of Montrose after being informed of its failure, though it had been undertaken with his approval and also with his promise of support.

The Scots allowed Prince Charles to land in their country and agreed to ackowledge him as King Charles II. only on condition that he should sign the Covenant, enter the Presbyterian Church, and accept a limited royal prerogative. After some hesitation, the prince agreed to these terms, left Holland, and made his appearance in Scotland. The daily and hourly sermons and exhortations to which he was subjected by the zealous Scots appeared to the gay young prince to be a dear price to pay for his comfortless crown. He was obliged to issue a proclamation declaring himself humbled in spirit and afflicted for his father's tyranny.

and for his mother's idolatry. But with all this, none trusted him, so that he was only a nominal king, while the Scottish Parliament continued to exercise all the real power in that country.

Cromwell, who had received the thanks of Parliament for reducing Ireland to submission, and who had been created Captain-General of all the troops in England, was sent to subdue the Scots also; and he at once invaded Scotland, A. D. 1650.

At the head of sixteen thousand troops, Cromwell marched against the Scotch Covenanters, but many of his troops died from hunger and sickness on the way. At Dunbar, Cromwell, with only twelve thousand men, was opposed by twenty-seven thousand Scotch Covenanters, who considered victory certain. The Scotch preachers endeavored to prove from the Old Testament that the Covenanters would conquer, and urged an attack upon Cromwell's army. When Crom-

OLIVER CROMWELL.

well saw the Scots advancing, he exclaimed: "The Lord has delivered them into our hand!" A furious battle ensued on September 3, 1650, and Cromwell gained a glorious victory. The Scotch troops threw down their arms and fled in every direction, after losing four thousand killed and wounded, and ten thousand prisoners.

While Cromwell was still in Scotland, Prince Charles, with a body of Scotch troops, marched into England, and was joined by a considerable number of English royalists. Cromwell at length advanced against the prince; and, on September 3, 1651, exactly one year after the battle of Dunbar, was fought the battle of Worcester, in which Cromwell gained another brilliant victory. The royal army was hopelessly annihilated. Prince Charles fled from the field and became a fugitive.

Thus left alone in the very heart of England, with Cromwell's troopers occupying every road and scouring the country in search of the fugitive prince, Charles was in a most perilous situation. For six weeks he wandered in various disguises and through innumerable dangers, hiding by day and journeying by night. At one time, while concealed in the thick branches of an oak, he saw and heard his pursuers pass beneath him. A large reward was offered to any one who would betray the prince, and those who concealed him were threatened with death; but forty men and women, chiefly poor laborers, at different times concealed him. Finally he reached Shoreham, on the southern coast of England, where he embarked for France, in which country he arrived safely and became a pensioner of his young cousin, King Louis XIV.

General Monk, whom Cromwell had left in command in Scotland, subdued that kingdom in a campaign as terribly severe as that of Cromwell in Ireland. The inhabitants of Dundee were massacred; and Aberdeen and many other towns and fortresses of Scotland surrendered to the forces of the English Commonwealth.

General Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law, completed the conquest of Ireland. but died at Limerick, and was succeeded in his command by General Ludlow. The Puritan colonies in New England rejoiced in the triumph of their party in the mother country, and the other English colonies in North America were forced to acknowledge the Commonwealth.

After a half century of humiliation under the first two Stuarts, England now had a government that could command order at home and respect abroad, as in the "golden days of Good Queen Bess." For the first time in English history the war-making power was in the same hands as the purse-strings; and the abolition of rank and titles opened a freer career to all talents and energies, so that men who in previous times might have lived and died in obscurity now rose to high commands. Among these was Admiral Blake, whose brilliant achievements gave the English navy a renown which it had never before possessed.

Prince Rupert was at this time cruising in the Atlantic. Admiral Blake forced him to seek shelter in the Tagus; and when King John IV. of Portugal refused to admit Blake's pursuing fleet Blake took revenge by seizing twenty richly laden vessels belonging to the Portuguese king, who was only allowed to renew his alliance with England by making the most humble apology and submission.

The neighboring Republic of Holland was the next to feel the power of the English Commonwealth. The passage of the celebrated *Navigation Act* by the English Parliament, October 9, 1651, prohibiting foreigners from bringing into England in their own ships anything but their own productions, operated injuriously to the Dutch, whose country was small, but whose merchant fleet was the largest in the world, and who largely subsisted by the carrying trade between foreign ports. The final result of this arbitrary measure was a fierce and bloody naval war between the Republics of England and Holland.

The English required the ships of other nations to lower their flags in British waters. The English fleet under Admiral Blake met

the Dutch fleet under Van Tromp in the Downs. Blake fired three guns as a signal for the Dutch admiral to salute the English fleet by lowering his flag; but, instead of giving this customary salute, Van Tromp answered Blake's signal with a broadside. The fight that ensued between the two fleets led to a declaration of war against the Dutch Republic by the English Commonwealth in May, 1652.

In this naval war between the two republics twelve great battles and many smaller encounters ensued between their respective fleets. In an obstinate battle off the Goodwin Sands, near Dover, November 29, 1652, Blake was defeated and wounded with the loss of five ships taken or destroyed, and was obliged to seek shelter in the Thames. After gaining this victory, the Dutch admiral Van Tromp sailed up and down the English Channel with a broom at his masthead, to signify his intention of sweeping the English from the seas.

A desperate battle of three days occurred in the English Channel, off Portland, in February, 1653, between the English fleet of eighty vessels under Admiral Blake and General Monk and the Dutch fleet of seventy-six vessels under the great admirals Van Tromp and De Ruyter; ending in an English victory, the Dutch being so thoroughly crippled that the English were for several months undisputed masters of the seas. In June of the same year (1653) the Dutch fleet under Van Tromp was defeated off the North Foreland by the English fleet under Admiral Blake; and in July following (1653) Van Tromp was defeated and killed in a battle off the Texel with the English fleet under General Monk, who proved to be as good a commander on sea as on land. These three great English naval victories impoverished the Dutch Republic and made the English Commonwealth mistress of the Channel and the neighboring seas.

In the meantime, while the war with Holland was raging, a quarrel had risen between Oliver Cromwell and the Long Parliament. This Parliament had now lasted thirteen years, during the last four of which it was but the fragment of a Parliament under the designation of the "Rump Parliament." This Parliament had ceased to represent the wishes of the English people, and all parties considered its longer continuance to be impolitic, but there was no power with the legal right to dissolve it.

The odium attached to the "Rump Parliament" was increased by charges of corruption against its members in the appropriation of the public spoils. It had been hated by all denominations but its own from the very outset, and was fast becoming detested by its own sect and party. Cromwell became impatient at the selfishness and uncertainty that characterized the action of the "Rump Parliament," and urged a prompt "settlement of the nation" and an early dissolution. Parliament retaliated by a resolution to disband the army, but failed in the accomplishment of that purpose.

Finally there was an understanding that Parliament should soon dissolve and that the army should be disbanded, but Parliament soon manifested an inclination not to dissolve at all. In April, 1653, a proposition was made to call a new Parliament, in which all the members of the "Rump Parliament" should continue to hold seats, and also act as judges of the election of the new members. As a member of Parliament, Cromwell opposed this scheme.

A mutual council held at the palace of Whitehall adjourned for one day with the understanding that no action be taken in the meantime. At the time appointed for the second meeting of the council almost all of the friends of the measure and all of its leaders were absent. A messenger soon made his appearance at Whitehall, bringing the announcement that the measure was under discussion in Parliament, and that Sir Henry Vane was fast pressing the bill to a final passage. Cromwell angrily exclaimed: "It is contrary to common honesty!" He no longer hesitated; but, as he was secure in the attachment of the army, he resolved upon a decisive blow, a *coup d'état*.

Cromwell accordingly left the council of officers at Whitehall, and hasted to the Parliament House with three hundred soldiers, April 20, 1653. Posting the soldiers in the lobby of the chamber, he entered and took his accustomed seat while Sir Henry Vane was still speaking in behalf of the bill under consideration. He said to St. John, one of the members: "I am come to do what grieves me to the heart." He, however, still sat quiet, until Sir Henry Vane pressed the House to waive its usual forms and pass the bill at once. Thereupon he said to Colonel Harrison: "The time has come." Harrison replied: "Think well, it is a dangerous work!" Cromwell listened quietly for a quarter of an hour longer.

At the question "that this bill do pass," Cromwell suddenly started up, exclaiming: "This is the time—I must do it!" Then addressing the members, he said: "Your hour is come! The Lord hath done with you! He hath chosen other instruments to do his work!" A crowd of members started to their feet in angry protest. Cromwell replied: "Come, come, we have had enough of this!" He then strode into the midst of the chamber, clapped his hat on his head, and exclaimed: "I will put an end to your prating!" The House was at once in an uproar. In the din and confusion, Cromwell was heard to exclaim: "It is not fit that you should sit here any longer! For shame, get you gone! You should give place to honester men—to men who will more faithfully discharge their duties! You are no longer a Parliament! I tell you, you are no longer a Parliament!"

At this point Cromwell stamped his foot upon the floor as a signal, whereupon thirty musketeers entered the chamber. The fifty members present crowded to the door. As Wentworth passed him, Cromwell exclaimed: "Drunkard!" Martyn was taunted with a still coarser name. Sir Henry Vane was fearless to the last, and boldly told Cromwell that his act was "against all right and all honor." Cromwell exclaimed: "Ah, Sir Henry Vane, Sir Henry Vane! You might have prevented all this, but you are a juggler, and have no common honesty! The Lord deliver me from Sir Henry Vane!"

The Speaker refused to leave the chair until Colonel Harrison offered to lend him a hand to come down. Cromwell lifted the mace from the table, saying: "What shall we do with this bauble? Take it away!" As the members rushed out at the door, Cromwell exclaimed: "It is you that have forced me to this. I have sought the Lord night and day that he would rather slay me than put me upon the doing of this work." After the hall had been cleared, Cromwell ordered the door to be locked; and, putting the key into his pocket, he returned to Whitehall.

Thus ended the famous Long Parliament, April 20, 1653, after an existence of thirteen years. A few hours later its executive committee, the Council of State, was dissolved. When Cromwell summoned this committee to withdraw, John Bradshaw, one of its members, replied: "We have heard what you have done this morning at the House, and in some hours all England will hear it. But you mistake, sir, if you think the Parliament dissolved. No power on earth can dissolve the Parliament but itself, be sure of that!"

The "Rump Parliament" had become so unpopular that few appeared to have found fault with Cromwell's violent action. He was deluged with addresses of congratulation from the army, the navy, and many of the counties. In alluding to this dissolution several years afterward, Cromwell remarked: "We did not hear a dog bark at their going."

Oliver Cromwell was now virtually sole ruler of England, with more real power than any of her most absolute kings. To keep up the appearance of a Commonwealth, he summoned another Parliament, composed of Independents selected by a new Council of State from lists furnished by the Independent, or Congregational, churches. This Parliament met July 4, 1653, and was called the *Little Parliament*, or the *Barebones Parliament;* one of its leading members being the leather-seller, "Praise God" Barebones,

who was noted for his religious zeal and fanaticism.

The radical reforms of the Barebones Parliament in Church and State—such as a new code of laws, the establishment of civil marriage, the proposals to substitute the free contributions of congregations for the payment of tithes, and the scheme for the abolition of lay patronage—aroused the hostility of the lawyers, the clergy and the landed proprietors; all of whom accused Parliament of a design to ruin property, the Church and the law, and of being an enemy to knowledge and infected with a blind and ignorant fanaticism. Cromwell himself, who hated "that leveling principle" which tended to reduce all to one equality, also shared the general dissatisfaction with the proceedings of this Parliament. Said he: "Nothing is in the hearts of these men but 'overturn, overturn.'"

The whole conduct of the Barebones Parliament was unsatisfactory; and, after appointing another Council of State consisting of eight members with Cromwell at its head, the members, agreeing that they had sat long enough, went, with Rouse, their Speaker, at their head, to Cromwell, and voluntarily resigned their power into his hands, December, 1653. Comwell gladly accepted their resignations; and, being told that some of the members had determined to remain, he sent Colonel White with a body of troops to drive them from the house. The colonel, entering the hall, asked the refractory members what they were doing there. One Moyer, whom they had placed in the chair, replied: "We are seeking the Lord." White replied: "Then you may go elsewhere; for, to my certain knowledge, the Lord has not been here these many years." The members them withrew from the hall, and Cromwell's authority was undisputed.

The new Council of State summoned a Parliament to represent England, Scotland and Ireland; the right to vote for members of this Parliament being granted to all possessing property valued at two hundred pounds, excepting Roman Catholics and those who had borne arms in the royal cause during the Great Civil War between Charles I. and the Long Parliament.

Meanwhile, December 16, 1653, a new constitution, called the *Instrument of Government*, projected by General Lambert, was adopted by the Council of State, intrusting Oliver Cromwell with the supreme power, with the title of *Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland.* But a strictly constitutional government was organized. The Lord Protector, whose power was conferred upon him for life, was to summon a Parliament once in three years, and to allow it to sit at least five months without prorogation. Parliament was empowered to levy taxes, and to make the laws, subject for twenty days to the Lord Protector's veto. The Lord Protector was to consult the Council of State in the management of foreign affairs, in questions of peace and war, and in the appointment of officers.

One of Cromwells's first acts as Lord Protector was to bring the ruinous and destructive naval war between England and Holland to a close; and by the Peace of Westminster, in April, 1654, signed by Cromwell as Lord Protector of the English Commonwealth, the Dutch were required to lower their flag in salute to the English whenever vessels of the two nations met at sea.

In the writs for the election of the new Parliament it had been expressly stated that Parliament should not have power to change the government as conferred upon one person and a Parliament. When the new Parliament assembled at Westminster in September, 1654, its first act was to take into consideration the organization of the government. After the question of the Lord Protector's veto power had been debated three days, Cromwell barred the way to the Parliament chamber by a file of soldiers, and turned back all who refused to sign an agreement not to change the form of government. Three hundred members signed this agreement, and were permitted to enter the chamber; but one hundred refused to sign, and were turned back. The signers observed their agreement, but re-

fused to vote money for the army without a redress of grievances. Thereupon Cromwell, in a fit of anger, dissolved Parliament; and the Lord Protector became as absolute a ruler as Charles I. had been before the Great Civil War, levying taxes and making laws on his sole authority.

This state of things produced a powerful reaction in the public mind in England in favor of the restoration of monarchy. Faith in the fundamental principles of the English Commonwealth vanished, as the outward fabric of the Commonwealth crumbled under Cromwell's usurpations. Formidable royalist outbreaks occurred in various parts of England, but the Lord Protector's vigorous hand easily crushed these risings. This royalist revolt was punished by what was called the *decimation* of that party—a tax of the tenth penny on all their revenues. For the collection of this tax, England was divided into ten military districts, and each was placed under martial law, each of the ten major-generals who were placed over these districts respectively being authorized to imprison all whom they suspected. Scotland and Ireland were reduced to order, but the severities which the English soldiers practiced in Ireland have left their bitter fruit of undying hatred of English rule to the present day.

As Lord Protector, Cromwell governed vigorously and successfully, and made himself feared and respected at home and abroad. England was never more prosperous than under his firm rule. Cromwell reformed the law, and established uniformity in the administration of justice. He declared that "to hang a man for sixpence and pardon murder" did not accord with his idea of justice.

He never deviated from the great principle of religious toleration, on which he took an early stand. He quietly permitted the Jews, who had remained banished from England ever since the reign of Edward I., to return, and exerted himself to his utmost to protect them from persecution. He also protected the new Puritan sect of the *Friends*, or *Quakers*, founded by George Fox, a Leicestershire shepherd, during the period of the civil wars.

Cromwell's crude but effective statesmanship displayed itself to its best advantage in his management of foreign affairs. He boasted that he would make the name of *Englishmen* as much feared and respected as had been that of *Roman*, and the uniform success of his military and naval enterprises went far to realize this saying. European monarchs, in whose capitals at the beginning of the Commonwealth the lives of English ambassadors were in peril, now earnestly sought the Lord Protector's alliance. He made his power felt and feared by the pirates of the Barbary coast who had terrorized the Mediterranean for more than a century, and by the Spaniards in Europe and America.

Admiral Blake sailed into the Mediterranean with his fleet, and conquered all that ventured to oppose him. Casting anchor before Leghorn, he demanded and received satisfaction for some injuries which the Duke of Tuscany had inflicted upon English commerce. He next sailed to Algiers and forced the Dey to a treaty of peace and to restrain his piratical subjects from injuring the English any further. In 1655 Blake proceeded to Tunis, where he made the same demands. The Dey of Tunis desired the English admiral to look at the two castles, Porto Farino and Goletta, and to do his utmost. Blake showed him that he was ready to accept the challenge, entered the harbor of Tunis, burned the Dey's ships, and then sailed out of the harbor in triumph to pursue his voyage. Thus Admiral Blake cleared the sea of the pirates who had so long infested it, and secured the liberation of the captive Christians held in slavery in the Barbary states.

In 1655 the shrewd Cardinal Mazarin, the Prime Minister and virtual ruler of France during the minority of King Louis XIV., by flattering Cromwell, induced England to become the ally of France in a war against Spain. In 1655 Admiral Penn and General Venables conquered the island of Jamaica, in the West Indies, from the Span-

iards; and that island has ever since remained in England's possession.

Admiral Blake captured two Spanish treasure galleons of immense value at Cadiz. In 1657 he defeated a fleet of Spanish merchant vessels and treasure galleons off the harbor of Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriffe, under the cannon of their castle and seven forts; but this was the last conflict in which the great admiral engaged, as he died within sight of the English coast on his homeward voyage. Blake was an ardent republican, and he therefore opposed Cromwell's usurpation; but said he to his seamen: "It is still our duty to fight for our country, into whatever hands the government may fall."

In 1658 an English force of six thousand men under General Reynolds joined the French in the Spanish Netherlands; and the important harbor and fortress of Dunkirk, which the allies took from the Spaniards, was ceded to England by France as a reward for the English aid in the war.

Under Cromwell, England again occupied the position which she had held under Elizabeth as the protectress of the Protestant interests in Europe. The Waldenses, or Vaudois, in the valleys of Piedmont and among the Alps, had suffered cruel persecutions from their ruler, the Duke of Savoy, many of them being cruelly massacred. Cromwell sent an envoy to the duke's court with haughty demands for redress, and was threatening earthly vengeance; while the Puritan poet, John Milton, called upon God to avenge his "slaughtered saints whose bones lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold." A refusal of the Lord Protector's demands would have been followed by instant war, and so the Duke of Savoy desisted from his persecutions, being largely influenced thereto by Cardinal Mazarin, the French Prime Minister. This intervention, which saved the Vaudois from further massacre and persecution, pleased the English and commanded the respect of all Europe.

Cromwell was resolved upon the protection of the Protestants of the Continent of Europe from persecution, and was ready to make the thunder of his cannon heard at the Castle of St. Angelo and the Vatican, if necessary to secure such protection.

In 1656 Cromwell summoned another Parliament. This Parliament voted supplies, but protested against the military despotism which prevailed in England. Cromwell at once withdrew the troops quartered in the ten military divisions. This Parliament offered to Cromwell its "Humble Petition and Advice" that he would assume the crown and the kingly title. This offer of the royal dignity was not intended so much as an additional honor to Cromwell as for the security and tranquillity of the nation.

An existing law provided that no subject should be accused of treason because of his allegiance to the king for the time being, however the crown might be disposed of afterward. No such security existed, in case of a Stuart restoration, for the supporters of the Lord Protector. But an acceptance of the crown by Cromwell, while it would have satisfied his moderate and timid partisans, would have offended the army and all staunch republicans; and for that reason Cromwell refused the title and emblems of royalty. He was, however, reinvested with the Lord Protectorship, with well-nigh royal ceremony—with the purple robe, the scepter and the sword—and was empowered to name his successor.

The Lord Protector was already worn out by the cares of state. Even his enemies conceded that his administration had been marked with almost unparalleled energy and success. His firm, wise and tolerant policy had put an end to the religious dissensions which had agitated England for more than a century. But in managing the prejudices of the nation, Cromwell had been more arbitrary and tyrannical in his treatment of Parliament than even King Charles I. had ever been. The Lord Protector had also levied taxes without the consent of Parliament; and when one who had thus suffered appealed to the courts for legal redress, as John Hampden had done in 1637, his lawyers were arrested and imprisoned

in the Tower. Although the Protectorate ably promoted the private interests of the English people, it was a despotism in form, and Cromwell was painfully aware of the fact.

Cromwell's situation was not an enviable one. He was now equally hated by the royalists and the republicans, and many plots were formed against his power and his life. The emissaries of Prince Charles Stuart at Brussels or Cologne were active. Every hour added to Cromwell's disquietude. Lord Fairfax, Sir William Waller and many other Presbyterian leaders had secretly conspired to destroy him. His expensive and extravagant administration had exhausted his revenue and burdened him with debt. Cromwell's eldest daughter, Mrs. Fleetwood, the wife of General Fleetwood, whom she had married after the death of her first husband, General Ireton, was so violent a republican that she dreaded to see her father invested with supreme power. His favorite daughter, Mrs. Claypole, was a staunch royalist; and on her death-bed she reproached her father for overturning the monarchy. His other daughters, Lady Franconberg and Lady Rich, were also zealous royalists.

Conspiracy after conspiracy embittered the last days of Cromwell's life. And finally, to render the Lord Protector's last days more miserable, Colonel Titus published a book entitled *Killing no Murder*, in which the assassination of Cromwell was held up as desirable and even meritorious. Said this writer: "Shall we, who would not suffer the lion to invade us, tamely stand to be devoured by the wolf?" Cromwell read this spirited pamphlet, and was never seen to smile again. Thereafter the Lord Protector was in constant fear of assassination. He wore armor under his clothes, and always carried pistols in his pockets. His countenance was gloomy, and he trusted no one. When he traveled out he was attended by a numerous guard. He never returned by the same road which he went, and he did not sleep more than three nights in the same room.

Cromwell was delivered from his miserable existence by an attack of ague, of which he died September 3, 1658—the anniversary of his great victories at Dunbar and Worcester, and a day which he had always regarded as the most fortunate of his life. Thus died the greatest man that England ever produced—a great general, statesman and ruler.

There is a wide difference of opinion concerning Cromwell's character and motives. Personally he was a great man, having risen from the common walks of life until he acquired a renown truly royal, but he still retained his Puritan simplicity and piety. Of course he was somewhat actuated by the promptings of ambition; but it is possible that he possessed a great, earnest soul, chiefly animated by a patriotic desire to promote the welfare of his country.

Had Cromwell been of royal blood, and had the English throne been his birthright, his administration would have been the pride and boast of Englishmen of all subsequent ages. But he has been obliged to bear the odium of all the extreme measures that followed the Great Civil War. His moderate counsels, however, availed to frustrate the wild schemes that always spring up in times of revolution and civil commotion, both when he was Captain General of the Puritan army and when he was Lord Protector of the Commonwealth. He sometimes endangered his influence with his own soldiers by his conservatism.

Seldom are armies composed of such positive minds as the Puritan soldiers of England in the days of the Commonwealth. Almost any one of them was able to preach to his fellows what they called a sermon, and each one also had his own ideas of government as well as of religion. Even such an iron will as that of Cromwell was not always able to direct and control such stiff-necked material. It has been said with great truth concerning his policy with his army, that "to ordinarily govern, Cromwell was sometimes compelled to submit."

Cromwell was far ahead of his time in some respects. In her treatment of the re-

ligious question, England is at the present time slowly moving along in the path which the great Lord Protector marked out for her more than two centuries ago. He had an intuitive sense of the English nation's ills and of the proper remedies to be applied. The wonderful success of his policy is the best evidence of the general correctness of his intuitions.

The personal and constitutional elements were strangely mingled in Cromwell's government. Though ordinarily ruling in accordance with the laws, he did not hesitate to override or change them when they stood in his way. When Parliament failed to meet his expectations, he dissolved it, like Charles I.; and, like that king, he then ruled alone. But the parallel ends there. Charles I. ruled to uphold the royal prerogative. Cromwell ruled to promote the tranquillity and prosperity of England. But, while Cromwell lived, there was a universal feeling that the laws and the constitution of England were always at the mercy of an individual will. However favorable to public order and national progress under a wise administration, such a system as Cromwell's was incompatible with a free constitution. Under a weak head anarchy would be the inevitable result, and under an ambitious one the natural consequence would be a despotism.

Cromwell's enemies were unrelenting. In the view of priest and churchman he was the very ideal of a fanatic, although he was the most tolerant man in England. In the opinion of Cavalier and nobleman he was simply an upstart and an interloper, though his administration was able and just, commanding the respect of all Christendom. The royalist considered him only a low-born usurper and a proper victim for every assassin's dagger, though he made England so great and powerful that the very name of *Englishman* became a shield to the humblest individual bearing it in any part of the civilized word.

Nevertheless, with all his patriotism, Cromwell was a usurper. Any ruler who can, even once, set aside an established constitution, or trample the recognized law under foot, is a usurper; and Cromwell did this at will. The English people had just overthrown a royal tyranny to preserve their constitutional liberties; but, when the violent despotism of the Stuart dynasty merely made room for Cromwell's milder despotism, English freedom was won only to be lost again. The legitimate result of Cromwell's usurpation in 1653 was the restoration of the Stuart monarchy in 1660, along with the disappearance of religious toleration and constitutional liberty for well-nigh a generation.

Richard Cromwell, Oliver's son, was proclaimed Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, upon his father's death; but Richard, who had no executive abilities or firmness whatever, and who was of a quiet and unambitious nature, found himself unable to hold in check the contending factions in Parliament and in the army, or to govern a people almost on the verge of rebellion. The tide of reaction was felt even in his Council of State, which at once cast aside one of the greatest of his illustrious father's reforms, and summoned a new Parliament on the old system of election. In the new House of Commons the republicans under Sir Henry Vane, adroitly backed by the royalists, violently assailed Cromwell's system. The fiercest attack of all was made by Sir Ashley Cooper, a Dorsetshire gentleman, who had changed sides during the Great Civil War, having first fought for King Charles I. and then for the Long Parliament, and who had been a member of Cromwell's Council of State and had recently ceased to be a member of that Council.

Sir Ashley Cooper denounced Oliver Cromwell as "His Highness of deplorable memory, who with fraud and force deprived you of your liberty when living and entailed slavery on you at his death." Cooper also made a virulent attack on the army in these words: "They have not only subdued their enemies, but the masters who raised and maintained them! They have not only conquered Scotland and Ireland, but rebellious

England too; and there suppressed a Malignant party of magistrates and laws."

The army under Generals Lambert and Fleetwood—the latter of whom was Richard Cromwell's eldest sister's husband—then conspired against the new Lord Protector. The Commons at once ordered the dismissal of all officers who refused to engage "not to disturb or interrupt the free meetings of Parliament." Richard Cromwell thereupon ordered the council of military officers to dissolve. They forced the new Lord Protector to dissolve Parliament. The army was resolved upon the overthrow of Richard Cromwell; and, rather than confront the crisis, Richard quietly resigned the Lord Protectorship, after holding it a few months, and retired to private life, early in 1659.

After the resignation of Richard Cromwell, England was virtually without any government, and each party endeavored to obtain the supremacy. The "Rump Parliament," which Oliver Cromwell had so violently dissolved in April, 1653, reassembled, and assumed the direction of national affairs. But this Parliament did not possess the confidence of any party. A royalist rising occurred in Cheshire under Sir George Booth. The nation was tired of military rule; and Sir Arthur Haslerig, encouraged by the temper of the troops in Scotland and Ireland, made a demand in Parliament for the dismissal of Generals Fleetwood and Lambert from their commands. Thereupon the army under General Lambert dissolved Parliament by driving the members from Westminster. This was the end of the reconvened Long Parliament, and General Lambert then undertook the control of public affairs, A. D. 1659.

It was now the settled conviction of many that nothing but the restoration of monarchy would free England from a state of anarchy. General Monk, who commanded the army in Scotland, and who had long hated General Lambert, secretly formed the design of restoring the monarchy in the person of Prince Charles, the eldest son of the late unfortunate monarch; and at once entered into a correspondence with the prince, who was then living in Holland.

As Governor of Scotland, General Monk assembled a convention at Edinburgh, and strengthened himself with money and recruits. He then advanced to Coldstream, whereupon the cry of "a free Parliament" spread over all England like wildfire. The cry was taken up by General Fairfax, who rose in arms in Yorkshire, and also by the fleet in the Thames and the mob of London. The army endeavored to check the tide of popular feeling by recalling the Commons; but it was too late, as the restoration of monarchy under the Stuart dynasty was fast becoming inevitable.

So well did General Monk conceal his design that no one knew with which party he was acting, and he was enabled to march unopposed from Scotland to London, which city he entered February 3, 1660. General Lambert had in the meantime been imprisoned in the Tower by his own troops, who now joined Monk, having been deceived by that general's declaration of loyalty to the "good old cause." Monk had also protested his loyalty to the old "Rump Parliament," while he accepted petitions for a "free Parliament."

At Ashley Cooper's instigation, the Presbyterian members of the Long Parliament, who had been excluded from the House of Commons by Colonel Pride's Purge, again forced their way into Parliament, and at once resolved upon a dissolution and the election of a new House of Commons. The new Convention-Parliament met April 25, 1660, and showed its Presbyterian temper by adopting the Solemn League and Covenant, and by drawing up terms upon which a restoration of monarchy under the Stuart dynasty might be assented to; but, in the midst of their deliberations, they found that they had been deceived and betrayed by General Monk, who had secretly negotiated with the exiled Prince Charles Stuart, who was then at Breda, in Holland; thus rendering all exaction of terms impossible.

On May 1, 1660, Monk threw off the mask by proposing to the Convention-Parlia-

ment, which had just been assembled, the restoration of the monarchy. This proposal was hailed with joy by the English people, who were tired of the condition of anarchy which had prevailed since the death of Oliver Cromwell. The House of Lords hastened to reinstate itself in its former dignity. In the "Declaration of Breda," the exiled Prince Charles Stuart promised a general amnesty, religious toleration, and satisfaction to the army—promises which were received with an outburst of popular enthusiasm throughout England.

The Convention-Parliament at once voted "that according to the ancient and fundamental laws of this kingdom, the government is, and ought to be, by King, Lords and Commons." The vote had hardly passed when Prince Charles Stuart landed at Dover, May 25, 1660. Four days later, May 29, 1660—his thirtieth birthday—he made his triumphal entry into London, amid the exultant shouts of the populace, and was on that memorable day solemnly crowned King of England, Scotland and Ireland with the title of CHARLES II. Puritan England ended with the Stuart Restoration, and all was restored as before.

KING CHARLES II.

The thirty thousand veterans of the old Puritan army, drawn up at Blackheath to witness the return of young Charles Stuart to the land and throne of his father, was one of the most suggestive pictures in the annals of England. That spectacle can be truly termed "The Downfall of Puritanism." Those grim and stalwart veterans, who had controlled the destinies of England for almost a score of years—whose dauntless valor and irresistible charges had carried consternation into the ranks of the Cavaliers, the Scotch Covenanters and the Irish rebels—stood like lifeless statues, while the pealing bells, the blazing bonfires, and the exultant shouts of the populace, welcomed the returning Stuart to the throne of his ancestors.

These Puritan soldiers had swept away the English throne, the House of Lords and the State Church of England, and had reorganized or dismissed the House of Commons as they saw fit. But now they were beaten without a battle, in the presence of the people, who were reinspired with their old reverence for royalty. The old heroes of Marston Moor and Naseby, of Preston, of Dunbar and Worcester, now sadly and thoughtfully, but without a murmur, laid down their arms and quietly returned to their homes, thereafter to be distinguished from their neighbors only by greater industry and sobriety. Puritanism had its representative in Oliver Cromwell, and his usurpation of power was considered a Puritan usurpation. Puritanism became a political force, instead of a moral power, when Cromwell assumed the powers and dignity of royalty without the name, and when he governed England through his army instead of his Parliament; and therefore at Cromwell's death the downfall of Puritanism was inevitable.

As a political experiment, Puritanism had fallen never to rise again—had ended in utter failure and disgust; but as a religious system of national life it brought about the wildest outbreak of a moral revolt that ever convulsed England. But Puritanism was not dead. Its political death was merely a transformation. There now arose a nobler, a grander Puritanism, whose spirit and whose influence has fully manifested itself in two great works which have since been transmitted from generation to generation—John Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, that Puritan allegory which has been the most popular of all religious books; and John Milton's *Paradise Lost*, that Puritan epic which has been the most popular of all English poems.

Few sovereigns ever ascended a throne under more auspicious circumstances than did Charles II. No English king was ever welcomed with so wild a delight as was he. The frenzied joy of the people of London was demonstrated by ringing bells, blazing bonfires, and songs and shouts. The English people were relieved of great anxiety, as it had been doubtful who could take hold of the helm of state which Oliver Cromwell's strong hands had dropped; and Englishmen hoped that adversity and exile would have a tendency to make the young Stuart a wise and useful monarch.

Although Cromwell ruled with justice and made England glorious, the English people did not become reconciled to the practical despotism which he had established. Even republicans were reluctant to live under a government republican merely in name. As we have seen, under Richard Cromwell and after his resignation England was fast relapsing into anarchy. In fact, after his resignation England was virtually without a head, and even without a settled government. The monarchy had been abolished, and the republic had proven a failure. None could tell what would follow, but all saw very clearly that the Puritan army was the sole arbiter of the fate of England. The one fate to be dreaded was a succession of irresponsible military despots.

Puritans and Churchmen, republicans and royalists, perceived the abyss that yawned before them, and forgot their differences for a time. The only alternative for a peril that all could see but none could fathom was the restoration of the monarchy and the return of the Stuart dynasty. It was not, as has sometimes been asserted, the fickleness of

the English people that caused them to welcome the return of the younger Charles Stuart to his father's throne with such unbounded enthusiasm; but it was their conscious and narrow escape from countless national woes.

The rule of the Puritans had been made irksome to the English people because of their extreme legislation. Piety, or its profession, had been made an essential qualification for office; while innocent amusements had been strictly prohibited. The restoration of monarchy was followed by the repeal of Puritan legislation, and the inevitable result was reaction and a great social revolution. At no other time was the dance around the May-pole on the village green so joyous as now, and Christmas festivities were resumed with more than their accustomed hilarity.

The reign of Charles II. would have been more peaceful and popular had he possessed but ordinary wisdom, and had his father's experience and his own early misfortunes taught him to study and respect the wishes of his subjects. But he violated all the promises which he had made, and disappointed all the expectations of the English people. Although they welcomed the removal of the unnatural restraints introduced by Puritanism, they were not prepared for the unbridled license that prevailed throughout the country after the Stuart Restoration. Very soon they were turning in disgust from the king whose accession they had hailed with such delight, and were wishing that they had the great Lord Protector to still rule over them.

The history of the stage most vividly illustrates the extent of this great social revolution. Under Puritan rule even the most innocent theatrical performances had been rigidly prohibited. After the Stuart Restoration the theater was restored, foul and revolting, even destitute of a French refinement to its grossness. Real life in fashionable circles was reflected by the painted scenery and loose manners of the new stage. King Charles II. himself took the lead in the disgraceful revels of the royal court. The court furnished the standard of morality to the capital, whence the deadly contagion spread, infecting fashionable society throughout the entire kingdom. Religion became a byword, and morality became a mockery.

Says Macaulay concerning the corrupt state of fashionable society in England during the reign of Charles II.: "There have come over with him vices of every sort, and the basest and most shameful lust without love, servitude without loyalty, foulness of speech, dishonesty of dealing, grinning contempt of all things good and generous. The throne is surrounded by men whom the former Charles would have spurned from his footstool. The altar is served by slaves whose knees are supple to every being but God. Rhymers whose books the hangman should burn, panders, actors and buffoons, these drink a health and throw a main with the king; these have stars in their breasts and gold sticks in their hands; these shut out from his presence the best and bravest of those who bled for his house. Even so doth God visit those who know not how to value freedom."

The great mass of the English people, however, remained uncontaminated by this incoming tide of vice. Although Puritanism, as a political power, was dead, and its very name had become a jest among the now dominant Cavaliers, the minds and hearts of the English people had become too deeply imbued with the sturdy virtues and the deep religious spirit which were the very essence of Puritanism to be corrupted by the social pollution which followed in the wake of the Stuart Restoration. These Puritan virtues and this religious spirit still remained to mould English character and to modify English institutions, and they are now the most precious inheritance of the English people.

Charles II. was thirty years old when he found himself so unexpectedly seated on the throne of England. He had an agreeable person, a polished address, and a cheerful and engaging demeanor. His whole deportment tended to secure favor and popu-

larity. His excessive indolence and love of pleasure made him hate business and leave the affairs of government to others. All that the new sovereign cared for was to live idly and jovially.

The first measures of the new monarch gave general satisfaction to the English nation. Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, highly esteemed for his virtues, was placed at the head of the Ministry; and by his uprightness and prudence the government was conducted for some time with justice and moderation.

EARL OF CLARENDON.

The Convention-Parliament which restored the monarchy in 1660 at the beginning of the new reign passed an *Act of Oblivion and Indemnity*, extending a general amnesty to all who had taken sides against King Charles I. during the Great Civil War, excepting the leaders who had been most directly concerned in procuring the death of Charles I. Of those brought to trial, thirteen were executed as regicides, and many were imprisoned for life, although Charles II. had practically promised to pardon all who voluntarily came forward and surrendered themselves. Many fled to foreign lands; three of them—Goffe, Whalley and Dixwell—finding refuge in the English colonies in America.

A court was organized for the trial of twenty-nine of the regicides. This court was partly composed of men who as Parliamentary leaders had been most active in bringing on the crisis, but who had no immediate part in the death of Charles I. The twenty-nine regicides who were brought before this court for trial were not permitted to make any defense. Their judges acted as witnesses against them. By a refinement of cruelty, the executioner, with his axes, was brought into court and seated beside the prisoners. The few witnesses against them were suborned, but almost all of the prisoners were condemned to death.

The first of these regicides to suffer death was the good old republican general, Harrison, whose honest soldier-like appearance and gallant demeanor had disarmed the suspicion and even excited the involuntary admiration of Charles I. when that king was a captive. General Harrison was drawn on a hurdle from Newgate to Charing Cross, within sight of the palace of Whitehall, October 13, 1660. As he was borne along, his countenance was serene and even cheerful. A brutal wretch called out from the multitude: "Where is your good old cause now?" Harrison smiled as he put his hand on his breast, and said: "Here it is. I am going to seal it with my blood." On the way he said aloud several times: "I go to suffer upon account of the most glorious cause that ever was in the world."

General Harrison ascended the high scaffold with a firm step, and there addressed the multitude of his revilers and accusers. Among other things, he told them that, though he was unjustly charged with murder, he had always kept a good conscience both toward God and toward man; that he had no guilt upon his conscience, but comfort and consolation, and the blessed hope of eternal peace in the next world.

Then followed a most revolting scene. Harrison was cut from the gallows alive, and saw his own bowels thrown into a fire. He was then quartered; and his heart, still palpitating, was torn out and shown to the people. King Charles II. looked at this detestable scene from a short distance. This

General Harrison is said to have been an ancestor of the Harrison family which furnished a signer of the American Declaration of Independence and two Presidents of the United States.

Two days later, October 15, 1660, John Carew suffered death in the same manner, declaring with his last breath that the cause of liberty would survive. The next day, October 16, 1660, Coke and Peters were also drawn to Charing Cross. In order to strike terror into the heart of the learned Coke, who had been the counsel for Parliament in the trial of Charles I., Charles II. caused the ghastly head of General Harrison, with the face exposed and turned toward him, to be carried in the same hurdle; but the brave Coke was animated with fresh courage at beholding the horrid sight. The good old Puritan preacher, Peters, was brought within the railing around the scaffold, and was thus obliged to see the quartering of Coke. When the executioner had gotten through with Coke he came to Peters, rubbing his bloody hands, and asked the old preacher how he liked that work. Peters replied that he was not in the least terrified, and he met death with a serene smile upon his countenance.

Scenes as revolting characterized the execution of the other regicides who had been condemned to death. All died with firmness, glorying in the cause of liberty for which they now suffered on the scaffold. Among the number was Sir Henry Vane. The bold and determined attitude of those who suffered, and their addresses from the scaffold to the multitudes before them, produced their natural effect upon the people.

Says Burnet: "Though the regicides were at that time odious beyond all expression, and the trials and executions of the first that suffered were run to by vast crowds, and all people seemed pleased with the sight, yet the odiousness of the crime came at last to be so much flattened by the frequent executions, and by most of those who suffered dying with so much firmness and show of piety, justifying what they had done, not without a seeming joy for their suffering on that account, that the king was advised not to proceed farther, or at least not to have the scene so near the court as Charing Cross."

Oliver Cromwell, though dead, was regarded as a proper object of revenge. His body, and those of Ireton and Bradshaw, were torn from their tombs in Westminster Abbey, and hung upon the gallows at Tyburn, the place for the execution of the lowest malefactors. This base and silly revenge upon the lifeless remains of these three great leaders of the Puritan Commonwealth furnished a mark for the drunken insults of those who feared them when they were living. Their remains were thrown into a deep pit at Tyburn, and the bodies of Pym and Blake were also cast out of Westminster Abbey into St. Margaret's church-yard. Indignities were also offered to the bodies of Cromwell's mother and his eldest daughter, the last of whom had been the wife of General Ireton and General Fleetwood successively; though both women had been models of female domestic virtue.

Charles II. also let the weight of his displeasure fall upon the illustrious Puritan poet, John Milton, one of the best and greatest men of the age, who had been Cromwell's Latin secretary. Milton was now deprived of all his employments, and narrowly escaped with his life, for having written a noble *Defense of the English People* in their controversy with Charles I. General Monk was rewarded for his treason to his late republican associates by being created Duke of Albemarle and generalissimo.

The Act of Oblivion and Indemnity restored to the royalists the estates which the Commonwealth had confiscated, except when the transfer had been made by sale; but this act gave the royalists no redress for other losses. For this reason the dissatisfied Cavaliers called it "one of oblivion to the king's friends and indemnity to his enemies," as many of them had been mulcted without mercy under the Commonwealth, and many had been compelled to give up their estates to meet the necessities of the government.

The Convention-Parliament abolished the

last vestige of the Feudal System—the tenure of lands by knight service, including the wardship of minors and the marriage of heiresses; which had been adequate sources of revenue to the king, and instead of which he now received a life-grant of one million two hundred thousand pounds.

The dissolution of the Convention-Parliament and a new election resulted in the return of the *Cavalier Parliament* of 1661, which endeavored by successive acts to restore Episcopacy as the state religion of England. The Solemn League and Covenant was ordered to be burned by the public hangman. Charles II. himself became an Episcopalian, and declared that "Presbyterianism is no religion for a gentleman."

The *Corporation Act*, passed by the Cavalier Parliament, required all public officials to worship in accordance with the usages of the State Church of England, to renounce the Covenant, and to take an oath denying the right of a subject to resist the king under any circumstances whatever. A new *Act of Uniformity*, passed by the same Parliament, required all the clergy to adopt the Book of Common Prayer and to assent to all its contents, on penalty of ejection from their livings. Two thousand Puritan clergymen were ejected from their livings on the anniversary of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew for refusing to comply with this Act of Uniformity.

The *Conventicle Act*, another measure of the Cavalier Parliament, forbade the meeting of more than five persons at one place and time for worship, except by the use of the liturgy; and the *Five Mile Act*, also passed by this Parliament, forbade any dispossessed clergyman to appear within five miles of any town or of his former parish, and excluded all such Nonconformist and Dissenting clergymen from the work of instructing the young, dooming them to penury and even to starvation and death. The penalties for violation of these statutes were fines, imprisonment and banishment; and English prisons were soon filled with Puritan offenders, among whom was John Bunyan, who was incarcerated for twelve years in Bedford jail, during which he wrote *Pilgrim's Progress*.

The Cavalier Parliament also passed an act for the suppression of the Quakers, who were particularly odious on account of their refusal to bear arms or take oaths. Their founder, George Fox, suffered the most unrelenting persecution, his meetings being broken up and himself imprisoned. In the course of a few years twelve thousand Quakers were in prison.

Although Charles II. had solemnly signed the Scotch Covenant at Scone on New Year's Day, 1651, thus pledging himself to maintain the Presbyterian religion in Scotland, he was no sooner securely established on the thrones of England and Scotland than he not only turned Episcopalian himself, but also resolved to force his Scotch subjects to accept Episcopacy. The Earl of Lauderdale was sent to Scotland as Governor with unlimited powers to carry out the king's will, and he was aided by a Privy Council; while a body of troops, called the *life-guard*, was enlisted to maintain the royal authority and to sustain its agents.

The "Drunken Parliament" of Scotland far surpassed the Convention and Cavalier Parliaments of England in its loyalty to King Charles II., annulling all the acts of preceding Scottish Parliaments for twenty-eight years, and ordering the Marquis of Argyle and the famous divine James Guthrie, the leaders of the Covenanters, to be seized and executed in May, 1661. Episcopal bishops were appointed for Scotland, and James Sharp was created Archbishop of St. Andrews and Primate of Scotland.

In 1662 the Scotch Parliament passed an act requiring all officers of the crown in Scotland to sign a declaration that the Covenant was an illegal oath, and therefore not binding. All clergymen in Scotland were required to be reinstated in their livings by a bishop. Those who refused were ordered to resign their churches and to remove with their families from their parishes. Thereupon three hundred and fifty Presbyterian ministers resigned, and were followed by

their congregations into the open fields, where they held religious services.

The Scotch Parliament enacted severe laws to force the Presbyterian clergymen to discontinue their preaching and to compel the Covenanters to attend their parish churches, in which the Episcopal service was now conducted. The arbitrary Court of High Commission was revived, and a most cruel and unrelenting warfare was commenced against all Scots who refused to conform to the standard of the Episcopal State Church of England. Soldiers were posted at the various centers in Scotland to compel the Covenanters to attend the worship of the Established Church and to collect fines from non-attendants. The royal troops attacked the "conventicles," as the open air meetings of the Covenanters were called by the Episcopalians, and hunted the Covenanters through the country, cruelly torturing or executing them when they captured them, sparing neither age nor sex.

The faithful Covenanters, when driven from the open fields, armed for self-defense and held secret meetings in the woods at midnight, where they were sometimes surprised and mercilessly massacred by English soldiers. Many an awful death by slow and cruel torture, many a sad and lingering one in dark and dreary dungeons, occurred in the sea-girt prison of Bass Rock and the gloomy walls of Dumbarton Castle.

The cruelties of the royal troops caused several outbreaks of the Covenanters. An impotent rising of the persecuted Covenanters in the vicinity of Edinburgh in 1662 was seized upon as a pretext for the most barbarous legislation against them on the part of the Scotch Parliament. The unfortunate Covenanters became the victims of the most dreadful cruelty, the thumb-screw and the "boot" being common instruments of torture.

Thenceforth until the Revolution of 1688 the Scotch Covenanters maintained their faith amidst persecutions and sufferings which shock the mind. The prisons of Scotland were filled with Covenanters. Archbishop Sharp was generally regarded as the one responsible for this cruel persecution. The most formidable uprising of the Covenanters was crushed in the battle of Pentland in 1666.

The persecutions of the Puritans of England and the Covenanters of Scotland were the acts of the royalist Councils and the Parliaments of the two kingdoms, as the careless nature of King Charles II. rendered him unfit for a persecutor. So far as he was personally concerned, the king was a Roman Catholic, if anything; and he sometimes insisted upon indulgence for Dissenters and Nonconformists, in order to shield Romish "Recusants." But the disgraceful licentiousness of his court alarmed and disgusted even his best friends and staunchest adherents.

In 1662 King Charles II. married Catharine of Braganza, a daughter of King Alfonso VI. of Portugal. Tangier, in the North-western corner of Africa, and Bombay, in Hindoostan, were ceded to England by Portugal as the new queen's dowry. As Tangier was of no practical use it was soon abandoned, while Bombay was bestowed upon the English East India Company.

The king's Portuguese marriage aroused popular dissatisfaction in England; but the English people were aroused to the greatest indignation when Charles II. sold Dunkirk to France, thus parting with this foreign acquisition of England in Cromwell's time, to replenish his coffers, which were constantly exhausted notwithstanding the lavish revenues which Parliament granted him. The English people regarded the sale of Dunkirk to France by Charles II. as the greatest national disgrace that had befallen them since the loss of Calais to the same foreign power during the reign of "Bloody Mary" little more than a century before.

The English people were also dissatisfied when King Charles II. involved them in a useless naval war with Holland, in 1664. This war was caused by the rivalry of the English and Dutch merchants seeking a monopoly of the trade in ivory and gold-dust on the coast of Guinea, in Western Africa. The principal English naval com-

manders in this war were the king's brother James, Duke of York; Prince Rupert of the Palatinate, so famous as a royalist general under Charles I. in the Great Civil War; and the Duke of Albemarle, formerly General Monk.

In 1664 an English fleet sent to America conquered the Dutch colony of New Netherlands, taking its capital, New Amsterdam. King Charles II. granted the conquered Dutch province to his brother James, Duke of York, as a reward for his services in the war. The name of New Amsterdam was then changed to *New York*, as was also the name of the entire province of New Netherlands, while the name of Fort Orange on the Hudson was changed to *Albany*. In 1665 an English fleet under the Duke of York won a signal victory over the Dutch fleet under Opdam off Lowestoff, on the coast of Suffolk.

While the war with Holland was in progress London suffered two great calamities. In the summer of 1665 the plague, which was at that period always lurking in the suburbs and in the undrained and narrow alleys, spread over the city and in six months destroyed the lives of one hundred thousand of its inhabitants; and grass grew in streets that had been the busy marts of trade. Early in September, 1666, a great fire which raged three days reduced two-thirds of the city to ashes, destroying thirteen thousand dwellings and ninety churches, and leaving two hundred thousand of the population utterly destitute. This latter calamity was a blessing in disguise, as it destroyed the filthy sections of the city still infected with the plague; and in time well-drained streets and more commodious dwellings had taken the place of narrow lanes and wretched hovels. Among the buildings destroyed was St. Paul's Cathedral; and the rebuilding of this splendid edifice was the work of the great architect, Sir Christopher Wren.

These awful calamities had no effect on the king, who was all the time plunging deeper and deeper into luxury, extravagance and vice. He misused the money which Parliament had granted him for the prosecution of the war with the Dutch Republic, lavishing it upon his worthless favorites and his mistresses, thus leaving his ships to decay, while their unpaid crews mutinied. Charles II. is charged with having brought on this war for the sole purpose of obtaining money for his vile pastimes.

In January, 1666, King Louis XIV. of France entered into an alliance with Holland and declared war against England, sending six thousand men to aid the Dutch, who also had the alliance of Denmark. The Dutch fleet defeated the English fleet in a severe battle of four days off the North Foreland, June 11–14, 1666; but the English navy afterward won a victory over the Dutch. During the progress of the negotiations for peace in 1667 the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter, taking advantage of the weakened condition of the English navy in consequence of the misappropriation of the funds voted by Parliament, sailed boldly up the Thames and the Medway, burned many ships at Chatham, bombarded and captured Sheerness, and threatened London, whose inhabitants heard the roar of foreign guns for the first time.

Louis XIV. of France, who only wanted the two great maritime powers to exhaust each other, now deserted the Dutch Republic; and peace was signed at Breda, in Holland, July 31, 1667, thus ending this second naval war between England and Holland. By the Peace of Breda, the English retained the provinces of New York and New Jersey, in North America, which they had conquered from the Dutch; while the Dutch retained Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, in South America, and the island of Polerone, in the Moluccas. The treaty also modified the Navigation Act so far that all merchandise coming down the Rhine was permitted to be imported into England in Dutch vessels—a measure which gave the Dutch control of much of the commerce of Germany.

The English people held the Earl of Clarendon, their upright Prime Minister, responsible for their humiliation and dis-

grace in consequence of the disasters to their arms in the war with Holland; and, though he had been the faithful friend of Charles II. during the latter's exile, he wearied his ungrateful king by his virtues as much as he did the English people by his opposition to popular rights. Both court and Parliament therefore agreed that this great statesman should be the victim of the popular displeasure. The Earl of Clarendon was accordingly disgraced and driven from office in 1667, and was impeached by the Commons. He fled to France, where he passed the remainder of his days in exile, during which he wrote his famous *History of the Rebellion*. His youngest daughter, Anne Hyde, married the king's brother James, Duke of York, and was the mother of Mary and Anne, afterward Queens of England.

After the disgrace of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, a new Ministry was formed, known as the *Cabal*, from the initials of the names of the five noblemen who composed it—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington and Lauderdale. The word *Cabal* had previously been used to signify a Cabinet; but so corrupt was this famous, or infamous, Cabal of Charles II. that the word has ever since been applied to cliques of political tricksters. Ashley Cooper was the ablest statesman of the Cabal Ministry. Sir Thomas Clifford and the Earls of Arlington and Lauderdale were men of less ability. The Duke of Buckingham, the "witty duke," was the king's vile associate in debauchery.

The first action of the Cabal Ministry was honorable. Through the mediation of Sir William Temple with De Witt, the Grand Pensionary, or Prime Minister of the Dutch Republic, a *Triple Alliance* was formed by England, Holland and Sweden in January, 1668, to check the ambitious schemes of Louis XIV. of France, who had begun a war against Spain for the purpose of extending the north-eastern frontier of France to the Rhine by wresting the Spanish Netherlands and Franche-Comté from the dominion of the feeble King Charles II. of Spain. This Triple Alliance of England, Holland and Sweden forced the King of France to relinquish his ambitious designs by the Peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1668.

But King Charles II. of England and his Cabal Ministry soon descended from the high position which they had assumed as the protectors and defenders of Charles II. of Spain against the grasping ambition of Louis XIV. of France. The action which brands Charles II. of England and the Cabal with the deepest infamy was a secret treaty which they negotiated with Louis XIV. at Dover, May 22, 1670, by which the English monarch agreed to become a Roman Catholic and also the French king's ally in a war against Holland, in return for an annual pension of three million francs. This disgraceful Treaty of Dover stipulated that the King of England should announce his adoption of Roman Catholicism as soon as it was prudent to do so, and that Louis XIV. should furnish him with six thousand French troops in case his change of religion should cause any popular outbreak in England.

The Treaty of Dover placed England in the lowest depths of humiliation. Under Queen Elizabeth she had been second only to Spain, if to any of the great powers of Europe. With the accession of the House of Stuart in 1603 she descended to a secondary rank. The eight years of Oliver Cromwell's vigorous administration raised her again to a commanding position among the nations of the world; and an English ambassador who resided at the French court, both during the Commonwealth and during the reign of Charles II., asserted that he was treated with far greater respect as the representative of Cromwell than as the plenipotentiary of Charles II., though the latter was the cousin of Louis XIV.

Conformably to the Treaty of Dover, Charles II. of England commenced hostilities against the Dutch Republic on the sea, in 1672, as the ally of the French king. The principal English naval commanders in this war were the famous Prince Rupert, Lord Sandwich, and the king's brother

James, Duke of York. The Dutch navy gained several victories over the combined fleets of England and France.

In the battle of Solebay, May 28, 1672, the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter gained a brilliant victory over the united English and French fleets. Lord Sandwich was blown up and perished with his entire crew, and the duke of York narrowly escaped a similar fate.

In 1672, just before the commencement of this last war with Holland, King Charles II. had issued a *Declaration of Indulgence*, establishing the principle of religious toleration to all sects in England. This royal edict liberated thousands of Puritans who had pined in prison for many years. John Bunyan left the cell which he had occupied in Bedford jail for twelve years. Twelve thousand Quakers were among the liberated. The English people generally distrusted the king's motives in issuing the Declaration of Indulgence, believing that it was simply the initiative in a scheme to restore the Roman Catholics to office and to reëstablish Roman Catholicism as the state religion of England. Parliament's persistent refusal to vote supplies forced Charles II. to withdraw this edict of toleration during the same year, 1672.

Though Charles II. outwardly conformed to the Episcopal Church, he was believed to be a Roman Catholic at heart; and his brother James, Duke of York, was an avowed Catholic. The more the Stuarts favored Roman Catholicism, the more firmly did the English people and Parliament adhere to Protestantism; and, almost as soon as the Declaration of Indulgence had been recalled, the two Houses of Parliament followed up their advantage by passing the *Test Act* early in 1673, requiring all civil and military officers in the English service to take the Oath of Supremacy, which contained a denial of the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church and an affirmation of the doctrines of the State Church of England.

In obedience to this act, the Duke of York resigned his commission as Lord High Admiral; and his resignation was followed by hundreds of others in the military and naval service, thus showing to what an extent Roman Catholics had already been appointed to office, and confirming the previous popular suspicions of the king's Roman Catholic tendencies.

When the disgraceful Treaty of Dover became known, the people of England felt themselves basely betrayed by their king. So unpopular was this war in England that Parliament refused to vote supplies to carry it on. The infamous Cabal Ministry was broken up in 1673; and a new Cabinet under Sir Thomas Osborne, Earl of Danby, held the reins of power until 1678; while Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, who had been dismissed from the office of Chancellor, became the leader of the popular party.

The great opposition of the English people and Parliament forced Charles II. to renounce his alliance with the King of France and to make peace with Holland in February, 1674; but Charles II. still maintained his secret treaty with Louis XIV. and still rendered him such services as might entitle him to his annual pension, although the English people were clamoring for war with France in the interest of the Dutch Republic.

Wide-spread fear and distrust now prevailed throughout England. The course of Charles II. had aroused a suspicion that he and Louis XIV. of France had entered into a secret plot to ruin English freedom and to make England a Catholic country. In this excited state of public feeling, in 1578, when the English people were ready to credit any wild tale, Titus Oates, an infamous impostor and adventurer, spread rumors of a "Popish Plot" to assassinate King Charles II., burn London, massacre all the Protestants in England, and place the Duke of York on the English throne on condition that he should hold the kingdom as the Pope's vassal.

Titus Oates had been a Baptist preacher, a curate, a navy chaplain; and, after being left penniless by his infamous character, he sought bread by becoming a Catholic, and was admitted into the Order of Jesuits at

Valladolid and St. Omer. While in Spain he heard of the secret Jesuit meetings in London; and after being expelled from the order for misconduct he invented his story of the "Popish Plot," made up of the boldest falsehoods; but the fears of the English people had destroyed their power of judgment. Oates made affidavit of the truth of his story before Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey, a London magistrate. In the midst of this excitement, the correspondence of Edward Coleman, secretary of the Duchess of York, was seized. The panic was heightened when Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey was found dead in a field near London, and it was assumed that Jesuits had murdered him to silence disclosures. A solemn funeral added to the public agitation.

The murder was like a spark in a powder magazine. All England was in a frenzy of excitement. Both Houses of Parliament ordered an investigation, in which the Earl of Shaftesbury took the lead. Oates made fresh depositions charging five Catholic Lords with complicity in the plot, and these five accused Lords were committed to the Tower, while two thousand suspected persons were hurried to prison. The thirty thousand Catholics in London were ordered to leave the city. The train-bands were called to arms, and patrols paraded the streets of London to guard against a Catholic rising.

The Earl of Shaftesbury caused a bill to be rushed through both Houses of Parliament, in spite of the fierce opposition of the royalists, excluding Catholics from membership in either House—an exclusion which remained in force a century and a half. This exclusion had been aimed at the Duke of York, but the Earl of Shaftesbury was defeated by a proviso exempting the duke from its provisions.

The offer of a reward for fresh testimony brought forward another miscreant named William Bedloe, whose stories were more startling than those of Titus Oates. Bedloe testified under oath that a Catholic army was about to land in England to massacre the Protestants. Oates had the insolence to accuse even the queen, at the bar of the House of Lords, with knowledge of the plot to murder her husband. These fresh charges produced a fresh panic. The arrested Catholic Lords were ordered to be impeached. The arrest of every Catholic in England was ordered. Rewards promised for additional information brought forward a multitude of equally infamous spies and informers, who vied with each other in circulating some fresh rumor more exciting and atrocious than the last.

The trial and execution of James Coleman began a series of trials, convictions and executions which followed each other with indecent haste—judicial murders which are remembered even now with horror. The perjured testimony of Oates and Bedloe sent many innocent Catholics to the scaffold, all of whom died protesting their innocence to the very last. The most eminent of the victims thus offered up to satisfy the public demand for Catholic blood was Lord Stafford, in December, 1680.

The villain Titus Oates became the most distinguished man in England. He strutted about in lawn sleeves like those of a bishop, had a guard for his protection, and received an adequate pension. Fresh informers were brought forward to swear to the existence of a fresh plot. Gigantic torch-light processions paraded the streets of London, and the effigy of the Pope was burned amid the wild outcry of the excited populace.

The English ambassador at Paris, Edward Montague, returned home upon quarreling with the Prime Minister, the Earl of Danby; obtained a seat in the House of Commons; and, in spite of the seizure of his papers, laid on the table of the House the dispatch which had been sent to Louis XIV., demanding payment of the English king's services to France during the late negotiations. The Commons were thunderstruck. As the Earl of Danby's name was signed to the dispatch, he was at once impeached on a charge of high-treason. Charles II. was at the Earl of Shaftesbury's mercy; and, in order to prevent the disclosure of the secrets of his disgraceful foreign policy, the king

agreed to the Earl of Shaftesbury's demand for a dissolution of the Cavalier Parliament and the election of a new Parliament, along with the dismissal of the Earl of Danby's Ministry and the appointment of a new Cabinet, in consideration of which the Earl of Shaftesbury dropped the impeachment proceedings against the Earl of Danby. Thus ended the Cavalier Parliament, which had existed seventeen years, A. D. 1661–1678.

The new Parliament, in which the popular party had a majority, convened in March, 1679. The king then redeemed his pledge by dismissing the Earl of Danby and appointing a new Ministry from the popular party with the Earl of Shaftesbury at its head.

This Parliament is famous for having passed the celebrated *Habeas Corpus Act*, the third great statute in the progress of English constitutional liberty, and which effectually prevents arbitrary or prolonged imprisonments. By the provisions of the Habeas Corpus Act no person can be lawfully detained in prison unless he is accused of a specified offense for which he is legally subject to punishment, and it secures a prompt trial of the accused. Every jailer, upon a *writ of habeas corpus*, issued by the judge at the prisoner's demand, must produce his prisoner in court and show the cause of his imprisonment. The Habeas Corpus Act only reaffirms a recognized principle in English law ever since the adoption of Magna Charta; and it is enforced in every country which has derived its ideas of law and justice from England, being adopted in the United States, where it can only be suspended in cases of rebellion or war.

This Parliament also took up an Exclusion Bill, designed to deprive the king's brother James, Duke of York, of his right to succeed to the English throne, and to settle the succession on James's daughter Mary, the wife of Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, whom she had married in 1677, and who afterward became King William III. of England. This Exclusion Bill passed the House of Commons in May, 1679, but King Charles II. dissolved Parliament in order to prevent the measure from going to the House of Lords.

The election which followed returned a Parliament so unfavorable to the king's wishes that Charles II. prorogued it on the very day when it should have assembled. By repeating this prorogation, Charles II. kept it from meeting for an entire year. When it was finally allowed to convene, in October, 1680, it took up the Exclusion Bill, and was also dissolved. The next Parliament was summoned at Oxford in March, 1681, but it manifested the same spirit as its predecessors, and was dissolved after a session of but seven days.

During these contests between Charles II. and Parliament the English people became divided between two parties—the *Petitioners* and the *Abhorrers*—the former resolutely demanding the meeting of Parliament, and the latter expressing their abhorrence of any one who would presume to dictate to the king. The popular party had previously been called the *Country party*, and the party sustaining the king had been designated the *Court party*.

But the more permanent party names of *Whig* and *Tory* arose about this time also, and these designations have continued almost to the present day, having in recent years given place to the terms *Liberal* and *Conservative*. The Whigs recognized the right to resist any infringement of the liberties of the people on the part of the king; while the Tories maintained the doctrine of *absolute passive obedience*, denying the right of resistance to royal authority under any circumstances whatever. These names were at first applied by each of the parties to its opponent as terms of reproach; certain religious fanatics in Scotland being called *Whigs*, and certain Catholic banditti in Ireland being styled *Tories*. Altered circumstances have made some change in the principles, as well as in the names, of the two great parties in England during the last two centuries; though the one advocates

progress and reform, while the other clings to the traditions of the past.

It had already been discovered that the entire story of a "Popish Plot" was a pure fabrication. The death of the innocent Lord Stafford had changed the popular rage against the "Papists" into pity and remorse, so that no more blood was shed in the "Popish Plot." The entire crowd of base adventurers and informers, when they found their infamous occupation gone, passed over to the opposite party, and, by turning state's evidence, contributed to ruin those who had employed them.

The various real and pretended plots, along with the disreputable course of the Earl of Shaftesbury and the violence of the popular party in Parliament, produced a reaction in the public mind in favor of the king; and the king's dissolution of Parliament and his appeal to the justice of the nation were received with a general outburst of loyalty, April, 1682. The Church rallied to the king, and his royal declaration was read from every pulpit in England; while the universities solemnly decided that "no religion, no law, no fault, no forfeiture" could avail to bar the sacred right of hereditary succession.

The new strength of the crown was indicated by the arrest of the Earl of Shaftesbury on a charge of suborning false witnesses to the "Popish Plot." London was still true, however, to the Earl of Shaftesbury. The Middlesex grand jury ignored the bill of his indictment, and his discharge from the Tower was greeted in every street of the city with bonfires and the ringing of bells. But the loyal enthusiasm of the English people received a fresh impulse by the publication of the disgraced Prime Minister's papers, which disclosed the scheme of a secret association for the advancement of the exclusion of the Duke of York, the members of which bound themselves to obey the orders of Parliament even after its prorogation or dissolution by the crown.

Charles II. boldly pushed his advantages, while the Duke of York returned in triumph to St. James's Palace. A daring breach of custom installed Tories in 1682 as sheriffs of the city of London, and the packed juries which they selected placed every exclusionist at the mercy of the crown. After vain plottings, the Earl of Shaftesbury fled to Holland, where he soon afterward died, January, 1683.

But in 1683 a real Protestant plot was discovered. Several worthless characters had conspired to waylay and shoot King Charles II. and his brother, the Duke of York, as they rode past a certain place known as the Rye House, on their way to the races at Newmarket; but the ruffians were detected and executed. This conspiracy is known as the *Rye House Plot.*

Six conspirators of high rank desired a change in the government, though perhaps none of them intended any personal harm to the king. These were the Duke of Monmouth, the king's son by a low-born mistress; Lord William Russell; the Earl of Essex; Lord Howard; Algernon Sidney; and John Hampden, grandson of the illustrious Parliamentary leader in the struggle with Charles I. Russell desired simply the exclusion of the Duke of York from the succession to the English throne, and a return to just government under the reigning king and the existing constitution. Sidney was a republican by principle, and had opposed Cromwell's usurpation as well as the Stuart Restoration, but he was no assassin.

The plans of these Whig leaders were probably unconnected with the Rye House Plot; but they were arrested on the accusation of one of the conspirators, and their designs were betrayed by one of their number, Lord Howard. The Earl of Essex died in the Tower. Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney were beheaded. The Duke of Monmouth, who had fled when the conspiracy was first disclosed, was pardoned by his father, the king, and was allowed to appear at court; but he excited the disgust of all parties by his double dealing, and was again exiled.

The juries which tried and condemned Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney were packed. Concerning Russell, Hume

says: "It was proved that an insurrection had been deliberated on by the prisoner; the surprisal of the guards deliberated but not fully resolved upon; and that an assassination of the king had not once been mentioned or imagined by him." The law was stretched to his condemnation, and his blood was too eagerly desired by the tyrant Charles II. and the bigoted Duke of York to allow of the remission of the sentence of death. He was beheaded in Lincoln's Inn Fields, July 21, 1683, in the forty-second year of his age. His most bitter enemies have testified to his character for sincerity, probity and private worth. His wife secured the admiration of the world by the affectionate zeal and devotion with which she aided her husband, and by the magnanimity with which she bore her loss. She accompanied him into court upon his trial; and when he was refused counsel, and only permitted to have an amanuensis, she assumed that character, thus exciting the sympathy and respect of all who beheld her. Lord William Russell was an ancestor of the late Lord John Russell, the famous English statesman.

Algernon Sidney was tried for high-treason before the brutal Chief Justice Jeffries. His confederate, Lord Howard, who had turned state's evidence to save himself, was the only witness against him; and, as the law for high-treason required two witnesses, the Attorney-General had recourse to an expedient. In defiance of law and common sense, the additional testimony was held to be supplied by extracts from some discourses on government, discovered in manuscript in his closet, though not proved to be his handwriting, which asserted the lawfulness of resisting tyrants, and the preference of a free government to an arbitrary one. Notwithstanding a spirited defense he was pronounced guilty, and was beheaded on Tower Hill, December 7, 1683. As he was dragged on a sledge to the place of execution, one of the multitude called to him: "You never sat on a seat so glorious!" Just before laying his head on the block he handed the sheriff a paper, maintaining the injustice of his condemnation, and ending with a prayer for the "good old cause." He met his sad fate with firmness and constancy, and his memory has ever since been cherished as that of a martyr to the cause of free government.

While avoiding an open or defiant disregard of the laws, Charles II. proceeded deliberately to make his power absolute, thus inaugurating what has been termed the *Second Stuart Tyranny*, to distinguish it from the *First Stuart Tyranny* under Charles I. from 1629 to 1640, when there was no Parliament. During the last two years of his reign, A. D. 1683–1685, Charles II. was as absolute a monarch as any in Europe. The Test Act excluding Catholics from office was quietly ignored, and the Duke of York was restored to his former position as Lord High Admiral.

In the meantime blood had also flowed in Scotland. The severities of the Earl of Lauderdale as governor of that country had already driven the Covenanters to desperation; and some of them attacked James Sharp, Archbishop of St. Andrews and Primate of Scotland, dragged him from his coach and murdered him upon the public highway in the presence of his daughter, May 3, 1679. Of course this crime injured the cause of the Covenanters more than persecution could have injured it. Their religious meetings were broken up by soldiers; and the Covenanters assembled for worship only in the wildest recesses of the hills, all the men being armed, and sentinels being posted to guard against surprise. The principal stronghold of the Covenanters was the hill country between Lanark and Ayr.

The most brutal of the king's officers in breaking up the meetings of the Covenanters was John Graham of Claverhouse, who massacred men, women and children with the most atrocious cruelty. In May, 1679, he was routed by a band of armed Covenanters whom he had disturbed at their worship, and lost thirty of his troopers. At another time eight thousand Covenanters seized the city of Glasgow; but the king's

bastard son, the Duke of Monmouth, with fifteen thousand royal troops, defeated an army of Covenanters in the battle of Bothwell Bridge, in June, 1679, taking twelve hundred of them prisoners, most of whom were transported to the English colonies in North America.

King Charles II., who had formerly pleased his more extreme Protestant subjects by the marriage of his eldest niece Mary to William, Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, now took a similar step by the espousal of her sister Anne to a brother of King Christian V. of Denmark. These princesses were the only children of the king's brother James, Duke of York, and were in the line of succession to the English and Scottish thrones after their father. Their mother was Anne Hyde, the daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, and the first wife of the Duke of York, as already noticed. After her death the Duke of York married an Italian princess, Maria Beatrice of Este, daughter of the Duke of Modena.

Charles II. had mistress after mistress, and the guilt of these dissolute women was emblazoned to the world by the gift of titles and estates, so that royal bastards were set among the English nobility. The Duke of Monmouth was the son whom Charles II. had with Lucy Walters, and was the ancestor of the Dukes of Buccleugh. The Dukes of Grafton are descended from Charles II. and Barbara Palmer, whom the king created Duchess of Cleveland. The Dukes of St. Albans are the posterity of Charles II. and Nell Gwynn. The Dukes of Richmond are the descendants of the same king and Louise de Querouaille, a French mistress, whom the king created Duchess of Portsmouth, and whom the French court had sent to England to win Charles II. to its interests.

The freedom of the press was secured during the reign of Charles II. This result was accomplished by Parliament's refusal to renew the license law by which a supervision of the press had been maintained.

During the reign of Charles II. the colonies of the Carolinas in North America were settled by the English under a grant of that territory by the king to the Earl of Clarendon and seven associates. The colonies of New Jersey and Pennsylvania were also settled during this reign; the latter by Quakers under the auspices of William Penn, the son of Admiral Penn, who conquered Jamaica from the Spaniards in 1665 during the period of the Commonwealth, as already noticed. William Penn's justice and brotherly kindness to the natives saved Pennsylvania from the perils and difficulties to which the other English colonies in North America were subject.

England advanced steadily in industry and wealth during the reign of Charles II., notwithstanding the civil and political disorders which distracted the kingdom. This reign was a great era in science in England, being the period when Sir Isaac Newton discovered the wondrous natural law which keeps the sun and the planets in their orbits; when Edmund Halley commenced his learned investigations of tides, comets, and the earth's magnetism; when Robert Boyle improved the air-pump, and by its aid studied the properties of the atmosphere; when Thomas Hobbes and John Locke discoursed of the human mind, its laws and its relations to matter.

The Royal Society of Science was founded in the year of the Stuart Restoration, and its members were the first Englishmen who engaged in the really scientific study of minerals, plants, birds, fishes and quadrupeds. During this period many foreign painters flourished at the English court, and have left portraits of all its famous men and women. The great fire of London in 1666 gave a new impulse to architecture by opening a field for the genius of Sir Christopher Wren, who designed the present magnificent Cathedral of St. Paul's and many other churches.

Coffee, tea and chocolate first came into England with the Stuart Restoration, and coffee-houses were first established in London during the reign of Charles II. These establishments became celebrated as the places where political affairs were thoroughly discussed, and where the opinions of wits

were eagerly heard and repeated by multitudes of listeners. Nobles and gentry living in the country frequently engaged correspondents in London to inform them of current matters of interest in government and society; and by means of written or printed *news-letters* the talk of the capital was repeated throughout the kingdom—sometimes to the discomfort of His Majesty's Ministers, who made some fruitless efforts to stop these currents of public opinion at their source.

It has been asserted that Charles I. would never have rushed to his fate with such blind persistence if railways, telegraphs and newspapers had existed in his time as they do in our own day. The king was utterly ignorant of the temper of his subjects. The means of communication were worse than they are in Turkey at the present time. Even at the end of the seventeenth century, public roads in England could scarcely be distinguished from the meadows and the marshes which they traversed. Six horses were required to draw a coach through the deep mud, and all the public highways were infested by robbers.

The population of London at the time of the death of Charles II. is estimated to have been a half million. The streets were narrow, dirty and unpaved, and not lighted until the last year of that king's reign; and they were infested by ruffians and robbers, against whom the aged and feeble watchmen were unable to afford any protection.

In spite of all his faults, King Charles II. was an easy-going, good natured sovereign, plodding quietly along in the path of his pleasures, even when the most exciting events were in progress around him. His excessive good nature and his sportive manners, and the freedom and gayety of his court, have acquired for him the well-merited title of the "Merry Monarch." One of his courtiers portrayed him thus in the following epigram:

"Here lies our sovereign lord the king,
Whose word no man relies on;
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."

When this was shown to the king he retorted in his pleasant way: "That may be very true; for my words are my own, but my acts are my Ministers'."

Early in 1685 Charles II. was seized with an epileptic attack; and, after lingering a few days, he died on February 6th of that year in the fifty-fifth year of his age and the twenty-fifth of his reign. Although he made no public avowal of Roman Catholicism, he was at his own request attended by a Roman Catholic priest in his dying moments.

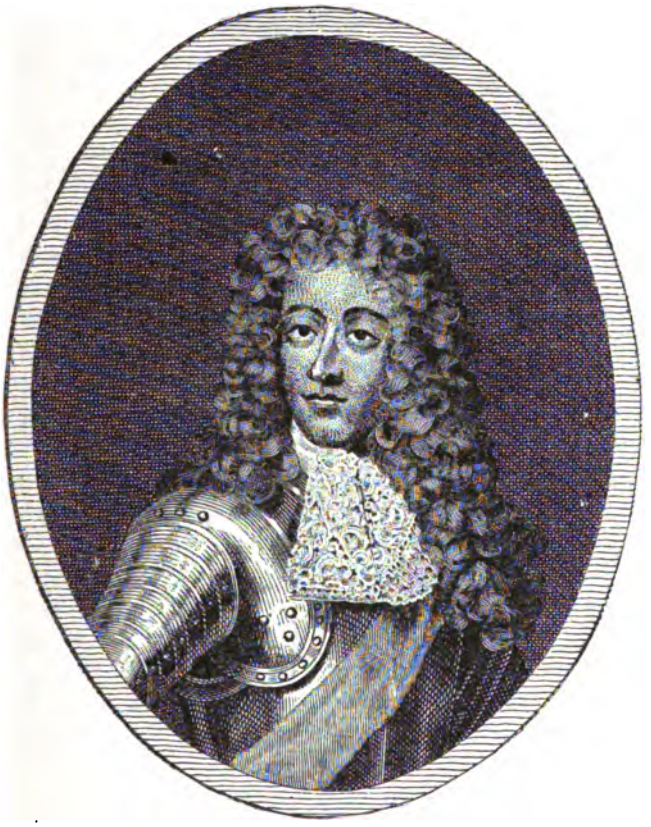
As Charles II. died without legitimate children, his brother, the Duke of York, succeeded him as King of England, Scotland and Ireland without immediate opposition, thus becoming JAMES II. of England and JAMES VII. of Scotland, February, 1685. During his brother's reign James had acquired considerable distinction as a naval commander, and England had been proud of him as her sailor prince. All efforts to exclude him from the English throne on account of his pronounced Roman Catholicism had failed; and, in spite of the recent agitations, the English people received with joyful confidence the pledge which he had made in the presence of his Council, at its first meeting after the death of Charles II., to uphold and maintain the Established Church and to observe and execute the laws of the realm.

Titus Oates was now brought to trial for his perjuries; and upon conviction he was sentenced to be whipped through the city during two days, to stand in the pillory five times a year, and to be imprisoned for life.

In the first year of the reign of James II. thousands of French Huguenots, who fled from their native land to escape the dreadful persecution which King Louis XIV. inaugurated that year by the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, settled in England and her North American colonies, establishing there those fine manufactures for which the Huguenots were celebrated. The many French names among the silk-weavers of Spitalfields, near London, shows their descent from the French exiles for conscience sake.

who first introduced that industry into England. Among the famous names in England in our own times are those of James and Harriet Martineau and Mr. Labouchere, whose ancestors were among these Huguenot exiles two centuries ago.

The high expectations that the English people had formed of James II. at his accession were soon doomed to the most profound disappointment; and the popular enthusiasm gave way to gloom, and gloom was finally succeeded by horror. James II. was not a simple lover of ease and pleasure like Charles II. had been; but he showed that he was more indifferent to public sentiment, more defiant of the law, and more malignant toward men of other views.



KING JAMES II.

Within three days after his accession, and in opposition to the advice of his Council, he levied customs without the consent of Parliament. The first elections during his reign were carried by fraud and violence in the king's interest. The new Parliament, utterly subservient to the royal will, approved the king's levy, and voted him a life income of two million pounds. This Parliament's action on the question of religion was moulded to suit His Majesty's pleasure.

The Parliament of Scotland was as servile to the king as was that of England, and it made the laws against the Covenanters more rigorous. One of these severe laws authorized the soldiers to put to death at once all Scots who refused to take the *oath of abjuration*, which required them to repudiate all sympathy with the declarations issued by the Covenanters in opposition to the royal authority. Among the many who were put to death for refusing to take this oath were two women—Margaret Maclauchlan and Margaret Wilson—who were tied to stakes in Solway Frith and drowned by the rising tide. The royal troops treated the Covenanters with the most shocking brutality, while the Covenanters exhibited the most heroic courage and firmness in their trials and sufferings. Another act of the Scottish Parliament at the beginning of this reign made attendance upon a conventicle a crime punishable with death.

During the same year, 1685, the Marquis of Argyle, the son of the great Marquis of Argyle, the leader of the Covenanters, who was executed in May, 1661, returned to Scotland from his exile and made an ill-organized effort to rouse the clans to resistance to royal oppression. This revolt of the Marquis of Argyle in Scotland was intended to be simultaneous with the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth, the illegitimate son of Charles II., in England; but the assembled army of the Scotch clans was dispersed without striking a blow; and the

Marquis of Argyle was captured while attempting to escape, and was beheaded at Edinburgh. The royal troops wasted the revolted section with fire and sword, and many members of the rebellious clans were cruelly mutilated and then transported to America.

The rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth in England, equally as rash as that of the Marquis of Argyle in Scotland, was undertaken for the dethronement of James II. and for the assertion of the duke's own title to the English crown; but its results were more disastrous than the attempted revolt in Scotland. The Duke of Monmouth had been persuaded by his adherents to make his rash invasion of England; and he accused his royal uncle of being "a traitor, a tyrant, an assassin and a Popish usurper," charging him with being the author of the great fire in London and of the murder of Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey and the Earl of Essex, and with having poisoned Charles II. The Duke of Monmouth was so beloved by the English people that, though he had only a hundred followers when he landed in England, he was soon at the head of six thousand, and was obliged to dismiss many for lack of arms.

The Duke of Monmouth was thoroughly defeated by the royal army at Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater, in Somersetshire, July 6, 1685—the last battle fought in England. He was found lying in a ditch, exhausted with hunger and fatigue. After many entreaties he was admitted to his royal uncle's presence; and, prostrating himself on his knees, he piteously begged with bitter tears that his life might be spared; but he refused to purchase his safety by betraying his partisans. Summoning his courage, he faced death on the scaffold, and his head fell by the stroke of the executioner's ax, July 15, 1685. His deluded followers were hunted down like wild beasts.

These unfortunate attempts at rebellion in England and Scotland only strengthened the royal power, as they kindled a new sentiment of loyalty in the minds and hearts of the English people, while they also furnished a plausible pretext for a large increase of the English army. The most severe measures were adopted against the rebels, and the Second Stuart Tyranny before long developed into the *Second English Reign of Terror.*

James II. exacted a most bitter vengeance for the Duke of Monmouth's misguided rebellion. A Circuit Court, under the presidency of Lord Chief Justice Jeffries, was organized in the rebellious counties of England; and the brutal action of this tribunal was better suited to the darkest of the Dark Ages than to the enlightenment of the seventeenth century. This court has been variously styled in history as *Jeffries's Campaign*, the *Bloody Assize*, and the *Second English Reign of Terror.* The pages of history can be searched in vain for a name that has descended to a more immortal infamy than has that of Judge Jeffries. The mind recoils with the deepest horror from the merciless judgments of this fiend against the innocent and the guilty, and from his heartless levity in the midst of the sufferings which he inflicted.

Chief Justice Jeffries had a fit associate in his atrocious cruelties in Colonel Kirke, who had learned his inhumanity from the Moors about Tangier. At the head of a company of troopers as inhuman as himself and ironically called "Kirke's lambs," this brutal officer was charged with the apprehension and execution of "Monmouth's rebels." Wherever Colonel Kirke and his "lambs" appeared men were hurried off to the gallows without even an inquiry as to their guilt or innocence, and he is said to have insulted their death-agonies by rude jests. It is said that "Kirke's lambs" were accustomed to entertaining themselves during their drunken carousals by having their prisoners hung on high gibbets in front of their windows, and having the drums beat to furnish music to the dance of the quivering bodies. As in the Wars of the Roses, the heads and limbs of those executed were posted in conspicuous places to strike terror into the hearts of the inhabitants. Colonel Kirke's military executions were about as

savage as Chief Justice Jeffries's judicial murders.

The English historian, Charles Knight, in his excellent *History of England*, gives the following account of the barbarities of Jeffries and Kirke: "The pitchy cauldron was constantly boiling in the Assize towns to preserve the heads and limbs from corruption that were to be distributed through the beautiful Western Country. As the leaves were dropping in that autumn of 1685, the great oak of many a village green was decorated with a mangled quarter. On every tower of the Somersetshire churches a ghastly head looked down upon those who gathered together for the worship of the God of love. The directing-post for the traveler was elevated into a gibbet. The laborer, returning home beneath the harvest-moon, hurried past the body suspended in its creaking grimmaces (chains). The eloquent historian of this reign of terror has attested from his own childish recollections that 'within the last forty years, peasants in some districts well knew the accursed spots and passed them unwillingly after sunset.'"

Among the victims of Chief Justice Jeffries's cruelty were two noble and generous women whose only crime was their womanly charity in giving food and lodging to fleeing rebels. One was Lady Alice Lisle, seventy years of age, the widow of one of the members of the High Court of Justice which tried and condemned Charles I. She was beheaded at Winchester. The other was Mrs. Elizabeth Gaunt, who was burned to death at Tyburn.

Three hundred and fifty rebels were hanged in the "Bloody Circuit" as Jeffries made his way through Dorsetshire and Somersetshire. More than eight hundred were sold into slavery in the West Indies. A larger number were whipped and imprisoned. Even the cold heart of General Churchill, to whose energy the royal victory at Sedgemoor had been largely due, was shocked at the ruthlessness with which the king turned a deaf ear to all appeals for mercy. Said the general, as he struck the chimney-piece on which he leaned: "This marble is not harder than the king's heart."

Those who were spared only bought their lives with their entire possessions; and Chief Justice Jeffries returned to London enriched by the pardons which he had sold, and boasted that he had "hanged more for high-treason than all the judges of England since William the Conqueror." His royal master rewarded him for his cruelties by creating him Chancellor.

We are told that even the queen herself and her maids of honor made merchandise of free-born English subjects, begging the lives of the condemned that they might increase their wealth by selling these unfortunates into slavery in the West Indies. Even the innocent and thoughtless girls who had presented an embroidered banner to the Duke of Monmouth when he entered their native town of Taunton would have suffered a similar fate had they not been ransomed by the payment of two thousand pounds to the maids of honor.

The ease with which the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth had been suppressed, and the evident loyalty of the English people toward their king, encouraged James II. to execute the policy which he had resolved upon from the very beginning of his reign —the reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism as the state religion of England. The standing army having been increased from ten thousand to twenty thousand men, the king filled the most important military offices with Roman Catholics in utter defiance of the Test Act. He dismissed Lord Halifax for refusing to consent to a plan for the repeal of that statute.

James II. haughtily declared to Parliament in 1686 that his grant of commissions to Catholics must not be questioned, whether legal or not. He also made a demand on Parliament for supplies for his increased army. Though both Houses of Parliament had large Tory majorities, their alarm at popery and at a standing army was stronger than their loyalty. The Commons, by a majority of a single vote, refused the grant of supplies until the king granted a redress of grievances, and demanded the recall of

the illegal commissions to Roman Catholics. The Lords assumed a bolder tone, and the eloquence of Lord Halifax backed the protest of the bishops against any infringement of the Test Act. The king at once prorogued both Houses of Parliament.

King James II. determined to obtain from the courts what he could not obtain from Parliament. He packed the Court of King's Bench with his own creatures, after dismissing four judges who refused to lend themselves to his plans. The new judges decided in the case of Sir Edward Hales, a Catholic officer in the royal army, that a royal dispensation could be pleaded in bar of the Test Act. The principle laid down by these judges asserted the right of the crown to override the laws; and King James II. applied this principle with a reckless impatience, admitting Catholics into all civil and military offices without restraint, while four Catholic Lords were sworn in as members of the Privy Council.

The laws which forbade the presence of Catholic priests in England, or which forbade the open exercise of Catholic worship, were ignored. A gorgeous chapel was opened in St. James's Palace for the king's worship. Monks of the various orders attired in their respective garbs ostentatiously paraded the streets of London, and even the Jesuits were permitted to establish a crowed school in the old palace of the Savoy. In consequence of a riot on the establishment of a new Catholic chapel in London, a camp of thirteen thousand royal troops was established at Hounslow to overawe the capital.

King James II. also proceeded with vigor to stamp out Protestantism in his other two kingdoms. In Scotland he acted as a pure despot, placing the government of that country in the hands of two Catholic lords, the Earls of Melfort and Perth, and putting a Catholic in command of Edinburgh Castle. Although the Scottish Parliament had been the servile instrument of King Charles II., it boldly refused to pass an act of toleration to Catholics, as recommended by James VII. When the king tempted them to consent by offering them free trade with England they indignantly replied: "Shall we sell our God?" James VII. at once ordered the Scotch judges to treat all laws against Catholics as null and void, and his orders were obeyed. The Earl of Perth was the inventor of the steel thumb-screw, one of James's favorite instruments of torture and conversion.

King James II. appointed Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel, a Catholic lord, to the office of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. In that country the king's policy threw off even the disguise of law, and by his command Roman Catholics were admitted to the Council and to civil offices. The new Lord Lieutenant reorganized the royal army in Ireland by cashiering all its Protestant officers and by admitting two thousand Catholic Irish into its ranks. As the determined foe of the English and Scotch Protestant settlers in that country, the Earl of Tyrconnel turned every Englishman and every Protestant out of office in Ireland: and in a very short time every Privy Councilor, every judge, every mayor and every alderman in that dependent kingdom was an Irishman and a Roman Catholic.

In the meantime King James II. had commenced a bold and systematic attack on the Protestant State Church of England. He roughly set aside the statute which abolished the Court of High Commission, which had been passed by the Long Parliament in 1640 and confirmed by the Convention-Parliament which restored the monarchy in 1660. In 1686 the king organized an Ecclesiastical Commission of seven members headed by the infamous Jeffries, with full power over religious affairs in England.

The king had forbidden the clergy to preach against popery, and ordered Bishop Compton of London to suspend a vicar who set this order at defiance. The bishop refused, and was punished for his disobedience by suspension from office. But the pressure of the Ecclesiastical Commission only drove the clergy to a bolder defiance of the royal will. Sermons against superstition were preached from every pulpit: and the two

most celebrated divines of the time—Tillotson and Stillingfleet—headed a host of controversialists, who scattered pamphlets and tracts from the public press, which teemed with the indignant protests of the English people.

King James II. next made an effort to place the great universities of England under Catholic control. A monk presented himself at Cambridge with royal letters recommending him for the degree of Master of Arts, but was rejected on his refusal to sign the Articles of Faith of the Church of England, and the Vice Chancellor was dismissed from office as a punishment for the rejection of the monk. The Master of University College at Oxford, who professed conversion to Catholicism, was authorized by the king to retain his post in defiance of the law. The king also appointed Massey, a Roman Catholic, as Dean of Christ Church College at Oxford.

In 1687 James II. recommended a Catholic of infamous life, named Farmer, for the position of President of Magdalen College at Oxford, although he was not even qualified by statute for the office. The Fellows of the college remonstrated; and when their remonstrance was rejected they chose one of their own number, named Hough, as their President. The Ecclesiastical Commission declared the election void; and the king then recommended Bishop Parker of Oxford, a Catholic at heart and the meanest of his courtiers, for the vacant Presidency of Magdalen College. But the Fellows obstinately adhered to their chosen President. The king at once visited Oxford and summoned them to his presence, and lectured them as they knelt before him like schoolboys. Said he: "I am king; I will be obeyed! Go to your chapel this instant, and elect the bishop! Let those who refuse look to it, for they shall feel the whole weight of my hand!"

The Fellows calmly disregarded the king's threats; but a special commission visited the university, pronounced Hough an intruder, set aside his appeal to the law, burst open the door of the President's house to install Parker in his place, and deprived the Fellows of their fellowships upon their refusal to submit. The Demies were also expelled when they refused to submit. Parker died immediately after his installation, and was succeeded by Bonaventure Giffard, a Catholic bishop in partibus; and twelve Catholics were admitted to fellowships in one day.

All England was now in a ferment; but King James II. possessed the insane obstinacy of the Stuart race, and pressed swiftly forward to his doom, turning a deaf ear to the entreaties of his Catholic friends, and even to Pope Innocent XI., who warned the reckless king through the Papal Nuncio in England not to do anything rashly, and to govern England in accordance with her laws for the present. The king, however, persisted in his policy; and his course was as reckless in the State as it was in the Church.

James II. silenced Parliament by repeated prorogations, and finally dissolved it, so that he was left unchecked in his defiance of the law. The members of the Ministry and the Privy Council who did not share his religious views were removed to make way for Catholics. Among those thus removed were his two brothers-in-law, the sons of the great Earl of Clarendon. One of these, Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, had been Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; and the other, Laurence Hyde, Earl of Rochester, had been First Lord of the Treasury. Lord Bellasys, a Catholic, became First Lord of the Treasury; and Lord Arundell, another Catholic, became Lord Privy Seal. Petre, a Jesuit, was called to the Privy Council. The Papal Nuncio was received in state at Windsor.

Although the great Tory nobles were staunch adherents of the crown, they were as resolute Englishmen in their hatred of mere tyranny as were the Whigs. The young Duke of Somerset, upon being ordered to introduce the Papal Nuncio into the Presence Chamber, replied: "I am advised that I can not obey Your Majesty without breaking the law." The king asked angrily: "Do you not know that I

am above the law?" The duke retorted: "Your Majesty may be, but I am not." The Duke of Somerset was dismissed from office, but the spirit of resistance spread rapidly.

In spite of the king's letters, the governors of the Charter House, numbering among them some of the greatest English nobles, refused to admit a Catholic to the benefits of the institution. The most devoted Tories murmured when James II. required apostasy to the Protestant State Church of England as an evidence of their loyalty to the king. In fact he was soon obliged to abandon all hope of bringing the Church or the Tories over to his will. Following the example of his brother, he published a Declaration of Indulgence in 1687, annulling the penal laws against Protestant Dissenters, or Nonconformists, and Roman Catholics alike, and abrogating every statute which imposed a test as a qualification for office in Church or State; but most of the Nonconformists, following the example of their great leaders —Baxter, Howe and Bunyan among them —fully understood the king's motives, and remained true to the cause of freedom by refusing to accept an Indulgence which could only be purchased by the subversion of the law.

The failure of this Declaration of Indulgence only spurred James II. to an effort to obtain the repeal of the Test Act from Parliament itself. But he was very well aware that no free Parliament could be induced to consent to its repeal. True, the king could pack the House of Lords by creating a sufficient number of new peers. Said his Minister, Lord Sunderland, to General Churchill: "Your troop of horse shall be called up into the House of Lords." It was, however, not so easy to obtain a compliant House of Commons.

The king directed the Lord Lieutenants to bring about such a "regulation" of the governing body in boroughs as would insure the return of candidates to the House of Commons pledged to repeal the Test Act, and to question every magistrate in their respective counties concerning his vote. Half of them refused at once; and many great nobles—the Earls of Oxford, Shrewsbury, Dorset, Derby, Pembroke, Rutland, Abergavenny, Thanet, Northampton and Abingdon—were immediately dismissed from their Lord Lieutenancies. When the justices were questioned they merely replied that they would vote according to their consciences, and send members to Parliament who would protect the Protestant religion. After repeated "regulations," it was seen that it was impossible to organize a corporate body which would return members to Parliament willing to obey the king. All thought of a compliant Parliament had to be abandoned; and even the most bigoted Catholic courtiers advised moderation on the king's part at this evidence of the stubborn opposition which James II. must prepare to encounter from the nobles, the gentry and the trading classes.

Finally an arbitrary act on the king's part for the first time aroused the clergy of the Established Church, who had been preaching Sunday after Sunday the doctrine of absolute passive obedience to the worst of kings. On April 27, 1688, James II. issued a new Declaration of Indulgence, abolishing all religious tests for office and all penal laws against Protestant Dissenters, or Nonconformists, and Roman Catholics. The king ordered every clergyman in England to read this Declaration to his congregation during divine service on two successive Sundays. With such unanimity did the English clergy refuse to be the instruments of their own humiliation that only two hundred out of ten thousand clergymen complied with the king's order. The Declaration of Indulgence was read in but four of the London churches, and in these the congregations rushed out of church when the reading of it commenced. So determined were the English people to resist the insane efforts of their bigoted king to overthrow Protestantism.

The bishops of the Church of England went with the rest of the clergy in opposing the king's illegal measures. Several days before the appointed Sunday, Dr. William

Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury and Primate of England, called the bishops together; and the archbishop and the six bishops who were able to appear at Lambeth signed a mild protest to the king declining to publish an illegal Declaration of Indulgence. When Archbishop Sancroft presented the paper to James II. the king exclaimed: "It is a standard of rebellion."

James II. at once resolved to wreak his vengeance on the prelates who signed the protest. He ordered the Ecclesiastical Commission to dismiss them from their sees, but the Commission shrank from complying with the king's command in this matter. The Chancellor, Lord Jeffries, advised a prosecution for libel as the easier method of punishment; and Archbishop Sancroft and the six bishops were committed to the Tower upon their refusal to furnish bail. They went to prison amid the applause of a vast multitude, while the sentinels knelt for their blessing as they entered the gates of the Tower, and the soldiers of the garrison drank their healths.

So menacing was the temper of the English nation that King James II. was advised by his Ministers to give way; but the danger only increased the bigoted king's obstinacy. Said he: "Indulgence ruined my father."

The Primate and the six bishops were brought before the bar of the Court of King's Bench as criminals, June 29, 1688. Though the judges were the subservient instruments of the crown, and though the jury had been packed to convict, judges and jury alike were overawed by the indignation of the English people at large; and Archbishop Sancroft and the six bishops were acquitted the next day, June 30, 1688. As soon as the foreman of the jury had pronounced the words "Not guilty," a deafening shout of applause burst forth from the overjoyed multitude; and horsemen galloped along over every road to spread the glad tidings of the acquittal throughout the kingdom.

The night of the day of acquittal, June 30, 1688, was a memorable one in London. The populace vented their joy at the verdict of the jury in the most enthusiastic demonstrations. The entire city was illuminated in honor of the Primate and the six bishops, while bells were rung from every belfry, bonfires blazed in every street, and rockets lighted up the heavens. The army which James II. had quartered at Hounslow to overawe the capital manifested its sympathy with the people by joining in their acclamations. The king was at Hounslow when he was informed of the acquittal of the seven prelates, and as he rode from the camp to return to London he heard a great shout behind him. The startled king asked: "What is that?" The reply was: "It is nothing—only the soldiers are glad that the bishops are acquitted." The king responded: "Do you call that nothing?"

The shout of the soldiers at Hounslow plainly told James II. that he had lost the sympathy of the army, which had been his only hope; and the king was now thoroughly conscious that he was left utterly deserted in his realm. The nobility, the gentry, the bishops and the clergy of the Church of England, the universities, every lawyer, every merchant, every farmer, his very soldiers, had now forsaken him. His most devoted Catholic friends urged him to give way before the sentiment of the English nation so universally and resolutely manifested; but to give way was to reverse every act which he had done as king, and James II. was in no mood to reverse his acts.

The king's arbitrary acts and usurpations had subverted all legal government in England. Sheriffs, mayors and magistrates appointed by the crown in defiance of Parliamentary statute were no real officers in the eyes of the law. Members returned to Parliament by such illegal officers could constitute no legal Parliament. Scarcely a Minister of the Crown or a Privy Councilor exercised any legal authority. To such a pass had James II. brought things that the reëstablishment of legal government meant the complete reversal of all his acts during the three years of his reign.

The king was only spurred on to a more

dogged pertinacity by danger and remonstrance. Still undaunted, he broke up the camp at Hounslow and dispersed the troops in distant cantonments. He dismissed the two judges who had favored the acquittal of the Primate and the six accused bishops. He ordered the chancellor of each diocese to report the names of the clergy who failed to read the Declaration of Indulgence.

The king's will broke fruitlessly against the sullen resistance which he encountered on all sides. Not a chancellor made any return to the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, and the temper of the English nation cowed the Commissioners into inaction. When the judges who had shown their servility to the crown went on circuit the gentry refused to meet them. But a still fiercer indignation was aroused by the king's determination to replace the English troops whose temper proved unserviceable for his purposes by soldiers from the Earl of Tyrconnel's Catholic army in Ireland. Even the English Roman Catholic Lords at the Council-table protested against this measure; and six officers in one regiment resigned their commissions rather than enroll the Irish recruits among their English troops. The ballad of *Lillibullero*, a scurrilous attack on the Irish Roman Catholics, was sung throughout all England.

For three years the people of England had borne patiently with James II., as the king was old, and as his two daughters, Mary and Anne, had been educated in the Church of England and were married to Protestant princes, the former to Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, and the latter to Prince George of Denmark; but when the hopes of the English people for a release from the yoke of popery were dispelled by the birth of a Prince of Wales, June 10, 1688, they resolved upon the dethronement of James II. Many of the most prominent men of all parties in England entered into negotiations with his son-in-law, the Prince of Orange, whom they resolved to place upon the English throne at an early day. James II. little dreamed that many of the officers of the army of forty thousand men which he assembled were in secret league with his son-in-law. Among these officers was General John Churchill, afterward so famous under the title of Duke of Marlborough.

The other event which hastened the crisis which hurled James II. to his doom was the arrest and trial of Archbishop Sancroft and the six accused bishops. On the very day of their acquittal seven of the most prominent nobles of England sent an invitation to the Prince of Orange to come to England to defend liberty and Protestantism. Both parties joined in this invitation—the Tories under the leadership of the Earl of Danby, and the Whigs under the Earl of Devonshire, Lord Cavendish. Bishop Compton represented the High Churchmen. This invitation was carried secretly to Holland by Herbert, the most popular of English seamen, and who had been deprived of his command because he had refused to vote against the Test Act. The seven nobles who signed this call to William of Orange pledged themselves to rise in arms when he landed in England.

William had seen his royal father-in-law become the pensioner of Louis XIV. of France, the prince's most inveterate enemy. He had diligently watched the persistent efforts of James II. to restore Roman Catholicism as the state religion of England. He had observed James's evident purpose to make Ireland a Roman Catholic state, to become an asylum for English Roman Catholics, and a possible refuge for himself —a scheme which menaced the integrity of the dominions of William's wife, who was the prospective heir to the English throne. William's counsels and protests had been unheeded by his kingly father-in-law; and when the birth of a Prince of Wales was announced, William shared the general belief that it was a supposititious child to be foisted upon England in the interest of the Roman Catholic Church. William's purpose was then formed, and he accepted the invitation of the seven English nobles, saying to Dykvelt, the Dutch ambassador at London: "It is now or never."

William was already, by descent and by circumstances, the champion of Protestantism in Europe. As the brave defender of his native land against the greedy ambition of Louis XIV., he the more willingly undertook the defense of the Protestant Church of England against his father-in-law, the cousin and co-religionist of the King of France. Besides, he was, after his wife and her sister Anne, the next heir to the throne of England, being, like them, the grandchild of Charles I.

The English nation was ready to rise against its king upon the landing of the Prince of Orange. William was gathering Dutch troops and transports with wonderful rapidity and secrecy, while noble after noble proceeded from England to Holland. The Earl of Shrewsbury arrived at the Hague with an offer of twelve thousand pounds toward defraying the expenses of the expedition. Edward Russell, the brother of the ill-fated Lord William Russell, appeared at the Dutch capital as the representative of the noble House of Bedford. The representatives of the great Tory families, the sons of the Marquis of Winchester, of the Earl of Danby, of the Earl of Peterborough, then appeared there, as did also the High-Church Lord Macclesfield.

At home the Earls of Danby and Devonshire—the former on the part of the Tories, and the latter as the representative of the Whigs—were making silent preparations with Lord Lumley for a rising in the North of England. Notwithstanding the profound secrecy with which this whole movement was conducted, the keen instinct of Lord Sunderland, the Prime Minister of King James II., who had apostatized to Roman Catholicism for the purpose of remaining in office, detected the preparations of William of Orange. Conscious that his sovereign's ruin was impending, Lord Sunderland revealed all the king's secrets to William on the promise of a pardon for the crimes to which he had lent himself.

King James II. alone remained obstinate and insensate as usual. He feared no revolt in England without the aid of the Prince of Orange, and he felt confident that a threatened French invasion of Holland would prevent William's landing in England. Kings James II. and Louis XIV. were in perfect accord; and when William began to collect ships and Dutch troops for an invasion of England, the French king schemed to detain him on the Continent. But Louis XIV. committed a great political blunder by hurling his forces against Germany in September, 1688, instead of against Holland, thus rendering the latter country safe for the moment, and leaving Prince William of Orange safe to pursue his campaign in England. The States-General of the Dutch Republic at once sanctioned their Stadtholder's project, and the armament which William had prepared rapidly gathered in the Scheldt.

As soon as the news reached England the king passed from obstinacy to panic. He had mustered an army of forty thousand men by drafts from Scotland and Ireland, but the temper of the troops was such that he could place no trust in them. He therefore became alarmed for the safety of his throne and made many concessions. He dissolved the Ecclesiastical Commission. He replaced the magistrates whom he had driven from office. He restored the franchises of the towns; and the Chancellor, Lord Jeffries, carried back the Charter of London in state into the city. The frightened king also dismissed Lord Sunderland from office, and produced before the Lords who were in London proofs of the birth of his child, which was almost universally believed to be a Catholic imposture.

But the king's concessions came too late; as the English people had already resolved that James II. should no longer reign; and as Prince William of Orange sailed from Holland with a fleet of six hundred transports, escorted by fifty men-of-war, and carrying thirteen thousand Dutch troops, and landed at Torbay, on the southern coast of Devonshire, November 5, 1688. His army entered Exeter amid the acclamations of its inhabitants. As his appearance had not been expected in the South-west of England,

no great landowner joined him for a week; but the nobles and squires soon rallied to his standard, and his rear was secured by the adhesion of Plymouth.

In the meantime the Earl of Danby gave the signal for a rising in the North of England by dashing into York at the head of a hundred horsemen. The militia returned his shout of "A free Parliament and the Protestant religion!" The nobles and the gentry flocked to his standard, and on his march to Nottingham he was joined by the forces under the Earl of Devonshire, who had mustered at Derby the great lords of the midland and eastern counties of England.

All England was now in revolt against James II., and the revolt was triumphant in every part of the kingdom. The garrison of Hull declared for a free Parliament. The Duke of Norfolk appeared in the market-place of Norwich at the head of three hundred gentlemen. Lord Lovelace was greeted at Oxford with vociferous acclamations by townsmen and gownsmen. Bristol opened its gates to the Prince of Orange, who advanced steadily on Salisbury, where his royal father-in-law had mustered his forces. But the royal army retreated in disorder. Its leaders were secretly pledged to William; and Lord Churchill's desertion was followed by that of so many other officers that King James II. abandoned the struggle in despair.

The deserted king fled to London, where he was told that his younger daughter Anne had left St. James's Palace to join the Earl of Danby at Nottingham. The wretched king burst into tears, exclaiming: "God help me, for my own children have forsaken me!" His spirit was thoroughly broken, and he secretly determined on flight from England in obedience to the advice of his queen and the priests; although he had promised to convene both Houses of Parliament, and sent commissioners to Hungerford to treat with his triumphant son-in-law on the basis of a free Parliament. He said to the few who had not deserted him that Parliament would force upon him such concessions as he could not endure. After sending his wife and infant son to France, the fallen king cast the Great Seal into the Thames, and secretly left London on the night of December 12, 1688, rowing silently down the river to a ship which he had engaged to convey him to France.

The government of England was thus dissolved by the king's own act. The mob was master. Even the army which James II. had collected to uphold his usurped authority was disbanded and let loose upon the capital, and for several days there was a wild outburst of panic and outrage; but the orderly instinct of the Anglo-Saxon race soon reasserted itself. In this momentous crisis the nobles and bishops who were in London assumed the responsibility of government, issued orders to the commanders of garrisons, the army and the navy, and opened communication with the Prince of Orange.

The runaway king was arrested near the coast; but this was unwelcome news to the authorities in London and to the Prince of Orange, who had promised his wife that her father should suffer no personal injury. No one wanted to harm the fallen king, the English nation having grown wiser since his father's execution. As it was only desired that James II. should be safely out of the way, it was made easy for him to escape. After waiting for some days for an invitation to resume his throne, he fled from London a second time, and embarked for France unhindered, December 23, 1688. The fugitive king arrived safely in France several days later, and proceeded to St. Germains, near Paris, where he was honorably received by his cousin, King Louis XIV., from whom the exiled monarch received a pension during the rest of his life.

An interregnum of two months succeeded the flight of James II. Upon William's arrival in London the House of Lords held a session and requested him to assume the provisional government and to call upon the electors of every town and county of England to send representatives to a Convention-Parliament to settle the future government of

the nation. The Convention-Parliament assembled in January, 1689. Both Houses and both parties were averse to recalling the exiled king, but the House of Commons with its Whig majority differed with the House of Lords with its Tory majority on the technical question as to the right of the nation to depose its king.

The Commons voted that James II. "having endeavored to subvert the Constitution of this kingdom by breaking the original contract between king and people, and by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, has abdicated the government, and the throne is thereby vacant."

Spirited debates occurred in the House of Lords, where the Whig minority, backed by the eloquence of Lord Halifax, warmly supported the resolution of the Whig majority of the Commons. Archbishop Sancroft and the High Tories contended that no crime could bring about a forfeiture of the crown, and that James II. was still king, but that his tyranny had given the English nation a right to deprive him of the actual exercise of government and to confer its functions upon a regency. The moderate Tories, under the Earl of Danby, admitted that James II. had ceased to be king, but denied that the throne could be vacant, and contended that from the moment of his abdication the sovereignty was vested in his daughter Mary. The Lords rejected the High Tory plan by a single vote, and adopted the moderate Tory scheme of the Earl of Danby by a large majority.

Both the Tory positions encountered a sudden obstacle in William. He refused the regency, and told the Earl of Danby that he did not intend to be his wife's gentleman-usher. Mary refused to accept the crown unless her husband shared the royal honors. These two declarations put an end to the question. Both Houses of the Convention-Parliament then passed an *Act of Settlement* electing WILLIAM III. and MARY II. as joint King and Queen of England, with the actual administration in the hands of William, who was thenceforth the head of both a monarchy and a republic, as he was still Stadtholder of Holland.

Somers, a young lawyer who had just distinguished himself in the trial of the bishops, and who afterward played a great part in English history, drew up a *Declaration of Rights*, which was presented to William and Mary by the two Houses of Parliament in the banqueting-room of Whitehall, February 13, 1689. This Declaration of Rights recited the misgovernment of James II., his

KING WILLIAM III.

abdication, and the resolution of the Lords and Commons of England to assert the ancient rights and liberties of English subjects.

The following were the most important provisions of the Declaration of Rights: 1. The king can not suspend the laws or their execution; 2. He cannot levy money without the consent of Parliament; 3. The subjects have a right to petition the crown; 4. A standing army cannot be kept in time of peace without the consent of Parliament; 5. Elections and Parliamentary debates must be free, and Parliaments must be frequently assembled.

In full faith that William and Mary would accept and maintain the principles enunciated in this Declaration of Rights, the immortal document ended with declar-

ing the Prince and Princess of Orange joint King and Queen of England. At the close of the document, Lord Halifax, in the name of the Lords and Commons of England, prayed William and Mary to accept the English crown. William accepted the offer in his own name and his wife's, and in a few words declared the determination of both to maintain the laws of the realm and to govern by advice of Parliament.

Such was the *Glorious Revolution of 1688*, by which the English people established their free constitution on a firm basis, after a century of struggles with the royal House of Stuart; and ever since that great event England has had a free constitutional government. Power was transferred from the king to the House of Commons. The monarch reigns as a mere figure-head, and "the king can do no wrong." His Ministers being responsible for the government's policy, only remain in power so long as they are supported by a majority in the popular branch of Parliament.

A revolution which accomplished results so grand without the shedding of a drop of blood may well be called glorious. Thenceforth there was no more punishment in England except for crime. Englishmen have never since pined in dreary dungeons, or died in God's free air on a heap of blazing fagots, as martyrs to their convictions. Instruments of torture are now found only in museums, as relics of a past age, exciting the beholder's wonder that any age, especially any Christian age, could have been so barbarous.

King James II., as the subverter of the laws of the realm, and as the usurper of powers which did not belong to a King of England, was really the beginner of the revolution; while the English people and Parliament were the defenders of law as well as of the constitutional liberties which had been their inherent birthrights. The English monarchy was thus restored to the character which it had possessed under the Plantagenets, and which it had lost under the Tudors and the Stuarts. The right of the English people, through their representatives in Parliament, to depose their king, to alter the line of succession, and to place on the throne whom they desired, was now asserted and established. The election of William and Mary formally put an end to all claim of the "divine right of kings," or all hereditary right independent of law. Since their time no King or Queen of England has been able to advance any claim to the crown except a claim resting on a particular clause in some Act of Parliament. William and Mary, and Anne, were sovereigns simply by virtue of the Bill of Rights. Their successors of the House of Brunswick have been sovereigns solely by virtue of the Act of Settlement.

The year 1689 was a memorable one in the constitutional history of England. The Convention-Parliament during that year passed a *Bill of Rights* embodying the principles enunciated in the Declaration of Rights which William and Mary accepted upon coming to the throne. William III. signed the Bill of Rights, which has been called "The Third Great Charter of English Liberties." The *Toleration Act*, also passed by the Convention-Parliament in 1689, established complete freedom of worship.

The Act of Settlement provided "that whoever shall hereafter come to the possession of this crown shall join in communion with the Church of England as by law established." The Convention-Parliament asserted its absolute right over taxation by restricting the grant of the royal revenue to four years. King William III. was very much incensed by this provision. Said he: "The gentlemen of England trusted King James, who was an enemy of their religion and their laws, and they will not trust me, by whom their religion and their laws have been preserved." But the only result of this outbreak of royal anger was the resolution of Parliament to make the vote of supplies thenceforth an annual one—a resolve that has been adhered to ever since.

By the *Mutiny Act*, Parliament granted disciplinary powers and pay for the military force of the kingdom for but one year, in

order to guard against the establishment of a standing army. Like the grant of supplies, the Mutiny Act has remained an annual one since the Revolution of 1688.

England had thus attained a free and settled government by the bloodless Revolution of 1688. As the will of the nation had been recognized in the choice of William and Mary for its joint sovereigns, the Whig party very naturally came into power, having a majority in the Convention-Parliament.

King William III. was not personally as popular in England as the cause which he represented; as he spoke English very badly, was naturally cold and reserved in his manners, and lacked the easy grace and the cultivated tastes of the Stuart kings, though he was an able general and statesman. He chose his first Ministry from both parties; the Tory Earl of Danby being named Lord President; the Whig Earl of Shrewsbury being appointed Secretary of State; and Lord Halifax, a trimmer between the two great parties, being selected for Lord Privy Seal. The struggles between the Whigs and the Tories were very bitter in Parliament. The Whigs proceeded to undo the wrongs which the Tories had done during the reigns of Charles II. and James II., and clamored for the punishment of the Tories guilty of those wrongs.

The election of William of Orange to the throne of so powerful a kingdom as England was a serious blow to his great enemy, Louis XIV. of France; as it enabled William to bring the fleets and armies of England into his struggle with the King of France, and as it immensely increased his power and influence in Continental Europe. William III., as King of England, became the acknowledged head of the coalition of European powers formed to resist French aggression. Without an ally, Louis XIV. was obliged to face the united power of England, Holland, Germany and Spain. An English brigade was sent to the assistance of the Dutch in the Spanish Netherlands, and distinguished itself under General Churchill, who had been rewarded for his services to William III. by the title of Earl of Marlborough. But King William III. himself was detained in England by the unsettled condition of the government, particularly by the critical state of affairs in Ireland.

In England, as we have seen, the Revolution of 1688 had been peacefully accomplished, not a drop of blood having been shed, and not a sword having been drawn for James II. That king's tyranny had been greater in Scotland than in England; and, as soon as he had called his Scottish troops into England to resist William's invasion from Holland, a revolt broke out in Edinburgh against his authority. The peasants in the West of Scotland at once rose in arms and drove the Episcopal clergy from their parishes, and the fall of James's tyranny was as rapid and complete in the Lowlands of Scotland as it was in England.

By the advice of the Scottish lords who were then in London, King William III. summoned a Convention-Parliament in Scotland similar to the one in England, and on his own responsibility set aside the laws which excluded Presbyterians from the Scottish Parliament. The Convention-Parliament of Scotland resolved that James VII. had forfeited the Scottish crown by his misgovernment, and offered it to William and Mary on condition of their acceptance of a *Claim of Right*, similar to the Declaration of Rights by the English Convention-Parliament, and ending with a demand for the abolition of Episcopacy in Scotland. William and Mary accepted the crown of Scotland with the conditions imposed in the Claim of Right, and their authority in that kingdom was strengthened by the arrival of the Scotch regiments which William had brought from Holland when he landed in England. The strength of the new government was roughly tested in the Highlands, whose inhabitants were the deadly foes of the clan of the Campbells headed by the noble House of Argyle.

When James VII. was dethroned in Scotland, early in 1689, John Graham of Claverhouse, who had been created Viscount Dundee as a reward for his cruel persecution

of the Covenanters, retired with a few troopers into the Highlands, where he was joined by the clans of the Macdonalds, the Macleans, the Camerons and others, who thought that the Revolution meant the restoration of their old oppressors, the Campbells, as represented by the House of Argyle. The Highlanders were ready to fight the Campbells and the government which upheld them, as they had fought under the banners of the Marquis of Montrose in the same cause nearly half a century before.

As King William's Scotch regiments under General Mackay climbed the rugged mountain pass of Killiecrankie, July 27, 1689, they were charged and swept in headlong rout down the glen by three thousand Highland clansmen under the Viscount Dundee, who was killed in the moment of victory. The loss of their leader broke the bond which held the Highlanders together, and in a few weeks the authority of William and Mary was undisputed in Scotland. In the summer of 1690 General Mackay erected the strong post of Fort William in the Highlands, and his offers of money and amnesty brought about the submission of the Highland clans.

Sir John Dalrymple, the Master of Stair, who had charge of the new government in Scotland, had hoped that the Highland clans would refuse to take the oath of allegiance to the new king and queen, and thus give grounds for a war of extermination and free Scotland forever from its terror of the barbarous Highlanders. He had provided for the expected result by orders of most ruthless rigor, having written to the officer in command in these words: "Your troops will destroy entirely the country of Lochaber, Lochiel's lands, Keppoch's, Glengarry's and Glencoe's. Your powers shall be large enough. I hope the soldiers will not trouble the government with prisoners." But his hopes were disappointed by the readiness with which the Highland clans accepted the government's offers of amnesty. All submitted in good time and took the oath of allegiance to William and Mary, except the clan of Macdonald of Glencoe, whose pride caused him to delay taking the oath of allegiance until six days after the latest day fixed by the proclamation of amnesty.

Thus thwarted in his hopes for the extermination of the Highlanders, Sir John Dalrymple eagerly seized on Macdonald's delay as the pretext for a massacre of less dimensions. He therefore laid an order "for the extirpation of that nest of robbers" before King William, and this brutal order received the royal signature, though the king afterward said that he neglected to read the order. After having thus obtained the royal sanction, the Master of Stair wrote to Colonel Hamilton, who undertook the execution of the order: "The work must be secret and sudden."

Accordingly Colonel Hamilton with troops from the clan of the Campbells, the deadly foes of the clansmen of the Macdonalds of Glencoe, quartered peacefully among them for twelve days until all suspicion of their bloody errand had disappeared. At dawn February 13, 1692, the Campbells fell upon the unsuspecting Macdonalds, and in a few moments thirty of the unfortunate clan lay dead in the snow. The rest escaped under cover of a storm to the mountains, where most of them perished of cold and starvation. Upon hearing the news of the *Massacre of Glencoe*, as this tragedy was called, Sir John Dalrymple said: "The only thing I regret is that any got away."

The Massacre of Glencoe has been severely and justly condemned in later times, but very few except Sir John Dalrymple knew anything about it at the time. But King William's consent to it—though excused on the plea of his neglect to read the order which he signed—will always remain as a stain upon his name.

The pacification of the Highlands enabled the work of reorganization to proceed quietly at Edinburgh. When King William accepted the Claim of Right with its repudiation of Episcopacy he had practically restored the Presbyterian Church as the state religion of Scotland. The Westminster

Confession was accordingly revived as the standard of faith in Scotland, and the Scottish Parliament passed an act abolishing lay patronage. The Scottish Parliament firmly refused to pass a toleration act, as proposed by King William; but the king was just as firm in his purpose, declaring that there should be no persecution for conscience sake during his reign. Said he: "We never could be of that mind that violence was suited to the advancing of true religion, nor do we intend that our authority shall ever be a tool to the irregular passions of any party."

Ireland was the battle-ground of the last and most severe struggle between King William III. and the fallen James II. The Earl of Tyrconnel, as Lord Lieutenant, had accomplished his mission in that dependent kingdom by bringing it completely under Catholic rule. The Irish army had been reorganized by disbanding its Protestant soldiers and by filling the ranks with native Catholics. The courts in Ireland had also been "purified" by substituting Catholic for Protestant judges. The town charters had been seized into the hands of King James II., and Catholic mayors of cities and Catholic sheriffs of counties filled the places formerly occupied by Protestants. In every part of Ireland the half-savage natives had been let loose upon Englishmen and Protestants. In the South of the island the panic-stricken Protestants, pursued with fire and sword, fled from their homes and sought refuge over-sea; while those of the North found shelter under the walls of Londonderry and Enniskillen, which were the only towns of Ireland that declared for William and Mary.

After intriguing with King William III. for two months in order to gain time, and backed by fifty thousand native Irish soldiers, the Earl of Tyrconnel boldly raised the standard of the fallen James II. by flinging a flag to the breeze from the tower of Dublin Castle, embroidered on its folds with the words "Now or Never." In response to this signal, every native Irish Catholic flew to arms. The infuriated Irish plundered what their former English masters had left, and such was the havoc that the French envoy told King Louis XIV. that it would require years to repair what had been destroyed.

In the meantime King James II. had sailed from France for Ireland with a French fleet and army furnished by his cousin, King Louis XIV., and landed at Kinsale. With half of the Earl of Tyrconnel's disorderly army of fifty thousand Irishmen, chiefly armed with clubs, James II. laid siege to Londonderry. The siege lasted one hundred and five days, during which the brave little garrison of seven thousand Englishmen made many gallant sallies, and repulsed the assaults of the besiegers. Multitudes of Protestants died of hunger in the streets of the beleaguered town, but still the cry of the besieged was "No Surrender." When only two days' food remained in the city, an English ship broke through the boom stretched across the river Foyle, thus bringing relief to the heroic garrison and the starving inhabitants, July 28, 1689; whereupon the Irish army under James II. sullenly raised the siege and retired.

On the same day the Protestant garrison of Enniskillen made a sally from that town and routed the Irish force twice as large at Newtown Butler, driving it in a panic which soon spread to the whole of the Irish forces under the command of James's general, Hamilton. The routed Irish troops retreated to Dublin, where James II. lay helpless in the hands of the frenzied Catholics.

In the Parliament of Ireland which the fallen Stuart king had summoned at Dublin every member was an Irishman and a Roman Catholic; and this Parliament proceeded in its work of ruin to the English settlers in Ireland, repealing the Act of Settlement on which all title to property rested, and passed a *Bill of Attainder* against three thousand Protestants. Notwithstanding the love for religious freedom expressed by James II., the Protestant clergy were driven from their parsonages; Fellows and scholars were expelled from Trinity College at Dublin; and the French envoy, the Count

of Avaux, even proposed a general massacre of the Protestants who still lingered in the districts which had submitted to James II. But James, to his credit, shrank horror-struck from the proposal, saying: "I can not be so cruel as to cut their throats while they live peaceably under my government." The Count of Avaux coldly responded: "Mercy to Protestants is cruelty to Catholics."

Thus far King William III. was unable to come to the relief of his Protestant subjects in Ireland, as the best English troops were in the Spanish Netherlands, operating against the French; but in the autumn of the same year, 1689, the Duke of Schomberg, a refugee Huguenot, who had entered King William's service, landed in Ireland with ten thousand English troops, and took Carrickfergus after a short siege. But this new invasion only roused Ireland to fresh enthusiasm, and the ranks of the Irish army were again filled, thus enabling James II. to lead a force of twenty thousand men to Drogheda to oppose King William's general. Thereupon the Duke of Schomberg with his ten thousand raw recruits intrenched himself at Dundalk, but a pestilence in his camp soon carried off half his troops.

During the next six months of the campaign in Ireland, James II. sought to replenish his treasury by the coinage of brass money, and his troops subsisted by sheer plunder; while King William III. was preparing in England to reduce Ireland to submission, so that he would be free to devote his entire energies to his struggle with Louis XIV. of France.

During the winter of 1689–'90 the English army in Ireland under the Duke of Schomberg was reinforced, and by the spring of 1690 it numbered thirty thousand men. In the summer Louis XIV. sent seven thousand French troops under the Count of Lauzun to reinforce the Irish army under James II. About the very same time King William III. himself landed at Carrickfergus, and rapidly marched southward toward Dublin.

When King William III. caught sight of the Irish army under James II., strongly posted behind the river Boyne, he exclaimed in an outburst of delight: "I am glad to see you, gentlemen; and if you escape me now the fault will be mine." Early the next morning—July 1, 1690, Old Style, but July 12th, New Style—the entire English army plunged into the river. Thereupon the Irish infantry broke in a disgraceful panic; but the Irish cavalry made a gallant charge, in repulsing which the Duke of Schomberg lost his life. For the time the English center was held in check; but the arrival of King William III. at the head of the English left wing decided the battle against James II., whose last hope of recovering his lost dominions was thus destroyed. The fallen Stuart king at once fled to Dublin, and embarked at Kinsale to return to France; while King William III. entered Ireland's capital in triumph. The Orangemen, or Protestants of Ireland, still observe the anniversary of the battle of the Boyne.

The cowardice of James excited the scorn of his own Irish followers. An Irish officer replied to an Englishman's taunts about the panic at the battle of the Boyne: "Change kings with us, change kings with us, and we will fight you again." The Irish fought better afterward without a king. The French auxiliaries deserted the routed Irish army which had fled to Limerick, where it was besieged. Said the Count of Lauzun contemptuously, concerning the ramparts of Limerick: "Do you call these ramparts? The English will need no cannon. They may batter them down with roasted apples."

But twenty thousand Irish troops under the brave and skillful Patrick Sarsfield, who had served in the English army, surprised the English ammunition train, repulsed a desperate effort of the besiegers to take Limerick by storm, and thus forced King William III. to raise the siege of that town on the approach of winter.

After his failure in the siege of Limerick, King William III. returned to England to devote his attention to the war with France on the Continent, leaving the command in Ireland in the hands of the Earl of Marl-

borough, General Churchill, who had been recalled from the Spanish Netherlands, where he had been rapidly proving himself a great military genius. Cork with its garrison of five thousand Irishmen surrendered in the fall of 1690, and Kinsale also fell into the hands of the English a few days later.

During the winter of 1690–'91 a new French general, St. Ruth, arrived in Ireland with arms and supplies, thus encouraging the Irish; but in the spring of 1691 the English under Ginkell, a Dutch general in King William's service, seized Athlone, thus forcing a battle with the combined French and Irish forces at Aughrim, in which St. Ruth was slain and his army utterly vanquished.

The surrender of Limerick by Sarsfield to Ginkell in October, 1691, brought about the complete pacification of Ireland, and the whole country acknowledged William and Mary. Two treaties were concluded at Limerick between Ginkell and Sarsfield, the first promising religious toleration to the Irish Roman Catholics, and the second permitting Sarsfield and his ten thousand followers to go to France and to enter the French service. The triumph of the English was complete; and the severe laws that were enacted held Ireland in such absolute subjection that the country ceased to be a cause of apprehension to England for a century, or until the French Revolution.

Says John Richard Green, the eminent English historian, in his *Short History of the English People:* "By the military treaty, those of Sarsfield's soldiers who would were suffered to follow him to France; and ten thousand men, the whole of his force, chose exile rather than life in a land where all hope of national freedom was lost. When the wild cry of the women who stood watching their departure was hushed, the silence of death settled down upon Ireland. For a hundred years the country remained at peace, but the peace was a peace of despair. The most terrible legal tyranny under which a nation has ever groaned avenged the rising under Tyrconnel. The conquered people, in Swift's bitter words of contempt, became 'hewers of wood and drawers of water' to their conquerors; but till the very eve of the French Revolution, Ireland ceased to be a source of terror and anxiety to England."

On the great questions of civil and religious liberty Whigs and Tories were now agreed, as the two parties had united in bringing about the Revolution of 1688. But there their unanimity ended. The Whigs proceeded to undo the wrongs upon their great leaders during the last two reigns, and wanted to wreak vengeance on their opponents. The attainder of Lord William Russell was reversed. The judgments against Algernon Sidney, Lady Alice Lisle and others were annulled. In spite of the opinion of the judges that the sentence of Titus Oates had been illegal, the House of Lords refused to reverse it; but even that infamous impostor and adventurer was pardoned and pensioned.

The Whigs clamored for the punishment of the Tories who had shared in the illegal acts of Charles II. and James II., and refused to pass the Bill of General Indemnity which King William III. laid before them. The new king was resolved that no proscription should follow the revolution which placed him upon the English throne, as he was naturally opposed to persecution, and as the prosecution of the war with France demanded all his energies and exertions.

Almost every parson in the Established Church of England resented the requirement of an oath of allegiance to William and Mary as an intolerable wrong. Archbishop Sancroft, with a few bishops and many of the higher clergy, absolutely refused to take the oath, treated all who took it as schismatics, and when deprived of their sees by Act of Parliament they regarded themselves and their adherents as the only members of the true Church of England. The great majority of the clergy bowed to necessity by taking the oath; but their bitterness toward the new king and queen was fanned into a flame by the expulsion of the *Nonjurors*, as those who refused to take the oath were called.

During the year 1690 Admiral Herbert, who had been created Earl of Torrington as a reward for his services in the Revolution of 1688, had engaged in an indecisive engagement with a French squadron in Bantry Bay. A French naval victory off the English coast would have been pregnant with serious political consequences to King William III.; as a popular reaction had begun in England in favor of the deposed James II., on account of the expenses of the war with France, the high taxation in consequence, the expulsion of the Nonjurors and the consequent discontent of the clergy, the panic of the Tories at the spirit of vengeance displayed by the triumphant Whigs, and the presence of James II. in Ireland. This reaction led to the formation of a new party, called *Jacobites*, consisting of the Tory adherents of James II.; and it was feared that a Jacobite rising would follow the appearance of a French fleet on the English coast.

Under these circumstances, King William III., who perceived that if he yielded to the Whig thirst for vengeance his cause would be ruined, dissolved Parliament, proclaimed a general amnesty for all political offenses, under the title of an *Act of Grace*, and accepted the resignations of his more violent Whig Ministers. A new Ministry under the Earl of Danby, the old Tory leader, was formed; and the new Parliament summoned in 1690 had a Tory majority in the House of Commons.

The combined English and Dutch fleets under Admiral Herbert, Earl of Torrington, was defeated by the French fleet under Admiral Tourville off Beachy Head, on the coast of Sussex, June 30, 1690 (July 11th, New Style), the day before the battle of the Boyne. The fear of an invasion of England united the English people against the Jacobites. The burning of Teignmouth by the French fleet and the news of the battle of the Boyne gave the death-blow to the reaction in favor of the exiled James II.

In the spring of 1691 King William III. appeared in person at the head of an English army in the Spanish Netherlands, but was unable to prevent the capture of Mons by the French. The result was another Jacobite reaction in England, and such prominent Tories as the Earl of Clarendon and Lord Dartmouth opened a correspondence with the exiled James II. The Earl of Shrewsbury and other Whig leaders, angered at what they considered King William's ingratitude, did the very same thing. The Earl of Marlborough sought to bring about a revolt which would drive William III. from the throne, and place James's daughter Anne upon it, hoping thus to get the real direction of affairs in his own hands, as Anne had a great affection for the Earl of Marlborough's wife.

Admiral Russell, the successor of the Earl of Torrington, was also disloyal to King William III., but was too true an Englishman to allow the French to invade England. In May, 1692, an army of thirty thousand men—French troops and British exiles—was assembled on the coast of Normandy to invade England and replace James II. on his lost throne; but Admiral Russell, at the head of the English and Dutch fleets, defeated the French fleet under Admiral Tourville off the Isle of Wight, May 19, 1692, and in a still greater naval battle off Cape La Hogue, on the coast of Normandy, May 23, 1692. James II., who watched the battle from a neighboring eminence, could not help expressing his admiration of the skill and bravery of the English seamen, saying: "None but my brave English could have done this." This great English naval victory defeated the project of an invasion of England by the fallen James II., and established England's supremacy on the seas.

The French army in the Spanish Netherlands defeated the allied English and Dutch armies under King William III. in the great battles of Steinkirk, July 24, 1692, and Neerwinden, July 29, 1693.

William's expensive war with France aroused great dissatisfaction in England, and his most trusted ministers were ever ready to enter into a correspondence with James II. whenever their own interests

seemed likely to be advanced thereby. Even the Princess Anne was persuaded by her intimate friend, the Countess of Marlborough, to write a penitent letter to her father, whom she had deserted during the Revolution of 1688, desiring peace and reconciliation.

The Revolution of 1688 and the Bill of Rights transferred the political power in England from the king to the House of Commons. Hitherto the Ministers of the Crown were but the king's servants, being responsible to the king only. By impeachment the Commons could sometimes force a king to remove a Minister who antagonized them, but they had no constitutional power to put in his place a Minister who represented their will. But the discontent of the Commons with William's war policy and with his internal administration led to a wonderful constitutional change in 1693, which has made England virtually a republic.

The credit of this great constitutional change belongs to Robert, Earl of Sunderland, who had been a Minister under Charles II. and also under James II., and who secured pardon and protection from William III. by having betrayed James II. when that king's doom was impending, although he had held office under him by complying with his tyranny and by a feigned conversion to the Roman Catholic faith. He had remained in retirement since the Revolution of 1688, and now came forward to suggest his new plan to William III., which was that the king should choose all his Ministers from the party which had a majority in the House of Commons. By this plan the Ministers of the Crown ceased to be the king's servants in all but in name, and became simply an executive committee representing the majority of the House of Commons, with which they must always be in accord on questions of great national policy. Small factions were thus drawn together into two great parties, which supported or opposed the Ministry of the Crown —the party of the Government and that of the Opposition.

Such was the origin of that system of popular representative government framed by Robert, Earl of Sunderland, which has ever since prevailed in England. In spite of the temporary reaction, the Earl of Sunderland believed that the Whigs were really the stronger party; as they were the natural representatives of the principles of the Revolution of 1688, and as they were supporters of the war with France, which the Tories opposed on account of the growth of taxation and the ruin of English commerce by French privateers.

The Tory opposition to the war induced King William III. to hearken to the Earl of Sunderland's advice by dissolving Parliament in 1695 and ordering the election of a new Parliament. The elections gave the Whigs a majority in the new House of Commons, whereupon the king dismissed his Tory Ministry and appointed a Whig Ministry in accord with the new House of Commons. The able Whig statesmen known as the Junto were called to this new Ministry. Thus Admiral Russell became Lord of the Admiralty; the brilliant Somers became Lord Keeper; Montague became Chancellor of the Exchequer; and the Earl of Shrewsbury became Secretary of State.

The Whig majority of the House of Commons moved quietly under the direction of their leaders, the New Ministers of the Crown, thus giving a new tone to that branch of Parliament; and great financial and constitutional measures passed rapidly through Parliament. By the passage of the *Triennial Act*, in 1695, the duration of a House of Commons was limited to three years. The refusal of the Commons to renew the bill for the censorship of the press, in 1695, established the freedom of the press; whereupon a multitude of public prints appeared. Concerning the action of the Commons in this matter, Macaulay says: "This act has done more for liberty and civilization than the Great Charter or the Bill of Rights."

To meet the financial strain of the war with France, Montague, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, established the *Bank of*

England in 1694 by adopting the plan suggested by Paterson, a Scotch adventurer; the subscribers to a loan being formed into a company without exclusive privileges and prohibited by law from lending money to the crown without the consent of Parliament. The growth of the national wealth had been so great that the list of subscribers was filled in ten days. The discovery of the resources afforded by the national credit revealed a new source of power. The rapid growth of the National Debt gave a new security against the restoration of the Stuarts, who would have repudiated it. Montague also carried out another financial reform in purifying the coinage of England, which had been greatly debased.

Queen Mary died near the end of 1694, and thus William III. reigned alone during the few remaining years of his life. William III. never recovered from the sadness caused him by the death of his wife, to whom he was tenderly and devotedly attached.

The power of the new Whig Ministry, the evidence of the public credit, strengthened King William III. at home and abroad. In 1695 the Grand Alliance against France won its first great victory over the French arms by the capture of Namur, in the Spanish Netherlands. The war was finally ended by the Peace of Ryswick, September 30, 1697; by which Louis XIV. relinquished all his conquests except Alsace, recognized William III. as King of England, Scotland and Ireland, and abandoned the cause of James II.

William III. and Louis XIV. soon afterward entered into a treaty for the partition of the Spanish dominions, October, 1698. The Spanish branch of the Hapsburgs, which had occupied the throne of Spain for two centuries, was about to end with the death of the childless Charles II.; and three heirs of Spanish princesses who had married into French and Austrian families claimed the Spanish succession.

The death of the nearest heir, the Elector of Bavaria, in 1699, annulled the First Partition Treaty between the Kings of England and France. Europe was threatened with another general war, and the popular feeling in England left William III. without the means of backing his policy by force of arms. The suffering caused to the merchant class by the last war, and the burden of debt and taxation which it entailed, were daily arousing the resentment of the English people; and the general popular discontent avenged itself on King William III. and the Whig party, which had sustained his policy. The king's lavish grants of crown-lands to his Dutch favorites, his cold and sullen demeanor, and his endeavor to maintain a standing army, had lost him all popularity. The Whig Junto lost its hold on the Commons. Montague was driven from his post. Somers was attacked without scruple. Even the boldest Whigs were afraid to accept office. In spite of the king's entreaties, Parliament sent his Dutch guards out of the country, reduced the army from ten thousand men to seven thousand, and the navy from forty thousand to eight thousand.

By a Second Partition Treaty between the Kings of England and France, in 1700, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany was required to cede his Spanish claims to his second son, the Archduke Charles; while Louis XIV. conferred his claims on Spain upon his grandson, Duke Philip of Anjou, who renounced his hereditary claims on France. But, upon the death of Charles II. of Spain, in 1700, Louis XIV. disregarded the Second Treaty of Partition by accepting the will of Charles II. bequeathing the whole Spanish inheritance to Philip of Anjou, garrisoned the Spanish Netherlands with French troops, and haughtily refused William's demand for their withdrawal.

The new Parliament in England with its Tory majority was opposed to war, and in 1701 William III. was obliged to appoint a Tory Ministry under Lord Godolphin, which forced William III. to recognize Philip of Anjou as King of Spain. As Holland did this, William could not refuse. But both parties in England were agreed in opposing a French occupation of the Spanish Netherlands, and a French attack on the Protest-

ant succession in England as settled by the Revolution of 1688. When Holland appealed to England for aid against a French invasion, the enraged Tory party in Parliament saw that they were silently drifting into war, and impeached the leading members of the Whig Junto for their share in the Partition Treaties. They insulted William III. and delayed the supplies. But the disclosure of the French king's designs and fresh Jacobite plots induced even the Tory Parliament to increase the army to ten thousand men and the navy to thirty thousand.

Finally, when Louis XIV., upon the death of James II., in 1701, recognized his son as King of England, Scotland and Ireland, all England was aroused to intense indignation, regarding the French king's action as a national insult; and King William III. found his Tory Parliament very willing to second all his efforts.

A new *Act of Settlement*, passed in 1701, excluded Roman Catholics forever from the throne of England; making Anne, the second daughter of James II., the prospective heiress to the English crown; and extending the right of succession to the Protestant heirs of James I., on the impending failure of Protestant heirs of James II.; thus conferring the crown upon the Princess Sophia, the granddaughter of James I. and the wife of the Elector of Hanover.

In 1702 a Second Grand Alliance was concluded against Louis XIV. of France by England, Holland and the German Empire. The Parliament summoned by William III. in 1702 with its Tory majority voted forty thousand troops for the War of the Spanish Succession, which now broke out. In the midst of his preparations for war, King William III. died at Hampton Court, March 8, 1702, from the effects of a fall from his horse, which broke his collarbone and aggravated the disease from which he had for some time been suffering. He was fifty-one years of age at the time of his death, and had reigned over England thirteen years. His successor ANNE, second daughter of James II., carried out his policy.

William III. had for some time been suffering from ill health, but to the last his fiery soul within showed itself in his eagle eye and in his firmly compressed lips. As the House of Orange had lain prostrate in his early youth, he was trained in the sad school of adversity. So he had learned to be watchful of public events, and also to be reserved in expressing his views. As his family was restored to power when he was reaching manhood, he brought to the public service wisdom and prudence remarkable in one so young. He displayed his genius to the best advantage in great emergencies. He was never so cool as when on the battlefield, and was always most dangerous after a defeat. He was personally unpopular during his lifetime, on account of his silent, unsocial habits, and his manifest partiality for his own countrymen. But his patience, constancy and patriotism, and the wisdom of his far-seeing policy, which secured to the English people prosperity at home, and which gave them an influence abroad which they had not possessed since Cromwell's time, have caused the name of William III. to be honored in every English household.

Statutes enacted by Parliament during the reign of William III. secured to persons accused of crime the right of counsel and a copy of the charges, and secured to those who were condemned protection from excessive fines and from cruel and unusual punishments.

The reign of William III. embraces an era in constitutional government in England, not only because it gave rise to new laws in the interest of liberty, but also because it gave vitality to old laws. Before his reign there were a sufficient number of charters and statutes, if they had been executed, to have made the English people thoroughly free; but public sentiment was not sufficiently educated and expressed, and the royal prerogative was not adequately limited and defined, to render the rule of a tyrant impossible. During the reign of William III. the rights and liberties of the English people and the prerogatives of the crown were clearly defined, so that ever

since that period the sovereign as well as the subject bows before the majesty of the law.

The one principle established in the reign of William III. that has made popular government in England secure is the principle that the Ministers of the Crown must be in accord with the majority in the House of Commons. If in any matter of importance, or in any matter in which the rival parties are at issue, the Commons refuse by their vote to sustain the policy of the Ministry in power, the Ministry either resigns to make way for a Ministry of the opposing party, or it dissolves Parliament and orders an election for a new House of Commons; and if the new election sustains the Ministerial policy by returning a majority in its favor the Ministry remains in power; but if an adverse majority is returned the Ministry resigns, and a Ministry of the opposite party comes into power. Thus the House of Commons—the popular or republican branch of the English Parliament—can dictate the governmental policy, and is the chief ruling power in England.

One peculiar and interesting fact in connection with the English Constitution is that it is not embraced in a single enactment or in the enactments of any single reign. It includes all the great charters and statutes that have been enacted at various times since King John's reign, with such customs and precedents as have been sanctioned by long usage. The English Constitution, although lacking the individuality of the United States Constitution, commands our reverence and our admiration; as it is the slow and steady growth of ages, and as it is the product of the wisdom and patriotism of the best English minds, standing the tests of time and an advancing civilization. In fact the American Constitution is simply an epitome and collection of the various charters of freedom which mark the entire course of English history.

The term *Mother Country* is significant to Americans, not only as indicating the English origin of most of the people of the United States, and of our early colonial governments, but also the English origin of American liberties and American laws. Almost all of those great principles of government which Americans so dearly cherish were conceived in English hearts and wrought out by English hands. The inalienable rights of man—life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness—dawned in Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights long before they shone resplendent in the Declaration of Independence or the Constitution of the United States.

The great Anglo-Saxon branch of the Germanic race—which was planted on the soil of Britain fourteen centuries ago—grew under exceptionally favoring influences to be the admiration and wonder of the world. The history of the long series of popular conquests, which were nobly won and firmly held—from Magna Charta to the Bill of Rights, which were the preludes to our own Declaration of Independence and our National Constitution—contains a fund of political wisdom which is the priceless inheritance of our own nation as well as of the Mother Country. The spirit of American institutions cannot be understood without some knowledge of the circumstances in England which led to the development of the great principles of English freedom upon which our own institutions are built. The great English statesmen who laid the foundations of English and American freedom in England centuries before our Republic was born deserve our lasting gratitude. The names of Stephen Langton, of Simon de Montfort, of John Hampden and the men who founded the English Commonwealth, should be cherished as much by Americans as by Englishmen.

Thus it is English freedom—the slow and steady growth of many centuries—that the people of our Republic enjoy. This new slip was severed from the parent tree a century ago, only that it might extend new roots and new branches in a broader field and under yet freer heavens, thus giving fuller development to the great principles of human liberty which constitute the rich inheritance transmitted to us from an illustrious ancestry.

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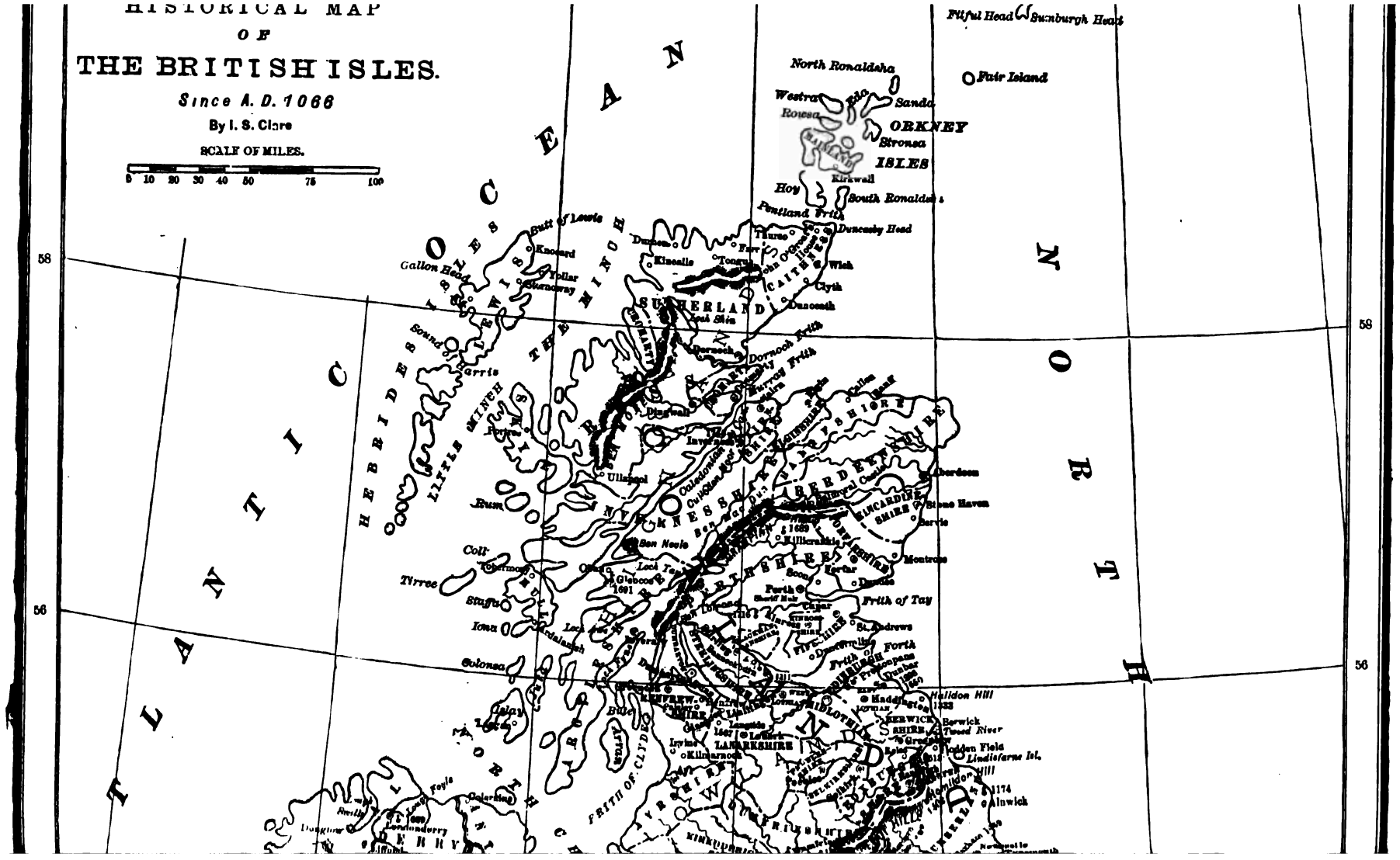
HISTORICAL MAP
OF
THE BRITISH ISLES.
Since A. D. 1066
By I. S. Clare
SCALE OF MILES.
0 10 20 30 40 50 75 100
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
Pittul Head
Sumburgh Head
North Ronaldsha
Fair Island
Westra
Rio
Sanda
Rousa
ORKNEY
Stronsa
ISLES
Kirkwall
Hoy
South Ronaldsha
Pentland Frith
Duncansby Head
Butt of Lewis
Knoward
Yollar
Shiandaray
Gallon Head
Dunbeath
Kinsalla
Tongue
Farr
Loch Naver
Thurso
Caithness
Wick
Clyth
Duncath
SUTHERLAND
Loch Shin
Dornoch
Dornoch Frith
Cromarty Frith
Inverness
Dingwall
Beauly Frith
Nairnshire
Elginshire
Aberdeen
Banffshire
Peterhead
Fraserburgh
Cullen
Buchan Ness
Ullapool
Caledonian Canal
Loch Ness
Inverness
Aberdeenshire
Kincardine
shire
Bruse Haven
Servie
Montrose
Killicrankie
Dunkeld
Perthshire
Perth
Scone
Dundee
Frith of Tay
Tarbert
Loch Tay
Glencoe
1691
Coll
Tiree
Staffa
Iona
Colonsa
Islay
Loch Awe
Loch Fyne
Kintyre
Arran
Ayrshire
Frith of Clyde
Renfrewshire
Lanarkshire
Lanark
Linlithgowshire
Edinburgh
Fifeshire
St. Andrews
Forth
Frith of Forth
Haddington
Berwick
Tweed River
Lammermuir Hills
Halidon Hill
1333
Lindisfarne Isl.
Flodden Field
1513
Cheviot Hills
1174
Alnwick
Northumberland
Durham
Cumberland
Westmoreland
Lancashire
Carlisle
Solway Firth
Derwent
Lough Foyle
Londonderry
1689
Derry
Donegal
Ireland
Hebrides
Little Minch
The Minch
Sound of Harris
Lewis
Harris
Uist
Barra
Rum
Skye
Mull
Tiree
Staffa
Iona
Colonsa
Islay
Jura
Arran
Kintyre
Loch Fyne
Loch Awe
Loch Tay
Loch Ness
Loch Shin
Loch Naver
Loch Lomond
Loch Katrine
Loch Leven
Loch Ryan
Loch Indaal
Loch Gruinard
Loch Broom
Loch Ewe
Loch Maree
Loch Torridon
Loch Carron
Loch Alsh
Loch Hourn
Loch Nevis
Loch Morar
Loch Eil
Loch Linnhe
Loch Etive
Loch Leven
Loch Ryan
Loch Indaal
Loch Gruinard
Loch Broom
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Loch Maree
Loch Torridon
Loch Carron
Loch Alsh
Loch Hourn
Loch Nevis
Loch Morar
Loch Eil
Loch Linnhe
Loch Etive
58
56

IRISH SEA
ST. GEORGE'S CHANNEL
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Liverpool
LONDON
DEVONSHIRE
CORNWALL
SUSSEX
SURREY
KENT
ESSEX
NORFOLK
SUFFOLK
GLAMORGAN SHIRE
WARWICK SHIRE
LEICESTERSHIRE
RUTLAND
RADNOR SHIRE
STAFFORD SHIRE
CHESHIRE
FLINTSHIRE
DENBIGHSHIRE
LIMERICK
LONGFORD
KINGS COUNTY
QUEENS CO.
WATERFORD
SLIGO
Galway Bay
Dundalk Bay
Holyhead
Isle of Man
Isle of Wight
Channel Isles
Guernsey
Jersey
Alderney
Scilly Isles
Eddystone Light-house
Strait of Dover
The Wash
Humber River
Thames River
Flamborough Head
Cherbourg
Havre
Rouen
Dieppe
Boulogne
Calais
Dublin 1170
Clontarf 1014
Battle of the Boyne 1690
Drogheda 1649
Scarborough
Whitby
North Allerton
Doncaster
Sheffield
Manchester
Bolton
Chester
Nantwich
Macclesfield
Caernarvon
Denbigh
Cardiff
Bristol
Exeter
Plymouth
Dartmouth
Falmouth
Weymouth
Southampton
Chichester
Hastings
Dover
Canterbury
Rochester
Guilford
Chelmsford
Colchester
Ipswich
Cambridge
Ely
Cork
Bandon
Kinsale
Tralee
Killarney
Limerick
Clonmel
Cashel
Kilkenny
Wexford
Wicklow
Arklow
Galway
Westport
Clifden
Newry
Armagh
Kells
Navan
Trim
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Longitude West from Greenwich

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SECTION III.—RICHELIEU, MAZARIN AND LOUIS XIV.

AS Louis XIII. was only eight years of age at the time of the assassination of his father, Henry IV., in 1610, the Dukes of Sully and Epernon at once took measures to secure the regency to the widowed queen, Mary de Medici, during the minority of her son. This action was not strictly lawful, but all parties in France acquiesced in it, as the necessity for a peaceful adjustment of the government was urgent.

The queen-regent, Mary de Medici, was a weak woman, of narrow understanding, and in no way adapted to the difficult and perilous situation which had been conferred upon her. She commenced her regency by retaining all the Ministers of her murdered husband, and confirming the Duke of Sully in the power and influence which he had exercised during the reign of Henry IV. The troops promised by Henry IV. were sent to the assistance of the German Protestants, and the Edict of Nantes was solemnly confirmed and renewed.

But in the course of time the queen-regent surrendered herself entirely to the influence of her Italian favorites, especially to her foster-sister, Leonora Galigai, and her husband, Concino Concini, an obscure Florentine adventurer. Concini's wife was the first lady of the queen-mother's bed chamber; and Concini himself was rapidly raised from one post to another until he was created Marquis d'Ancre, and finally Marshal of France. Under the guidance of this Italian favorite and his wife, Mary de Medici organized a secret council or cabinet, consisting of Concini, the Jesuit Cotton, the Pope's Nuncio in France, and the Spanish ambassador at Paris, surrendering herself wholly to this clique.

Mary de Medici was induced by her new favorites and councilors to establish the most friendly relations with the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs, thus reversing the entire policy of her murdered husband. To strengthen this new alliance with Spain and Austria, a marriage was contracted between the youthful King Louis XIII. and the Infanta Anne of Austria; while the young French king's sister, the Princess Elizabeth, was betrothed to Philip, Prince of Asturias, the eldest son and heir of King Philip III. of Spain.

The Duke of Sully viewed the queen-regent's foreign policy with deep regret, as he could not sanction such an overwhelming overthrow of the designs of Henry IV. for the humiliation of the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs. He vainly remonstrated with the queen-regent for making this alliance with the old enemies of France, and thus making the interests of France subservient to her new allies. As Mary de Medici persisted in her new foreign policy, the Duke of Sully resigned his office of Prince Minister in disgust and retired to his estates, in 1611, taking no further part in public affairs, though he was frequently consulted by the queen-regent during the rest of his life. He died in 1641, at the age of eighty-two.

The alliance of the leading Catholic powers of Europe—France, Spain and Austria—occasioned a closer consolidation of the Protestant influence, thus hastening the inevitable conflict in Germany between Catholicism and Protestantism. The policy of the French court was to intimidate the Huguenots, who were too numerous to be won over by gifts and pensions. They possessed two hundred fortified towns, had four thousand nobles in their ranks, and were able to muster an army of twenty-five thousand men.

Louis XIII. attained his majority September 27, 1614, at the ripe age of thirteen, and the next day he assumed the nominal charge of the government of France; though his mother, Mary de Medici, continued to exercise the real power in the kingdom.

Just before the expiration of the regency she had granted one demand of the Prince of Condé by summoning the States-General, and that assembly convened at Paris, October 14, 1614. The three orders of France were numerously represented; and among the deputies of the clergy was Armand Duplessis de Richelieu, the young Bishop of Luçon, who was destined to achieve a world-wide fame as the greatest of the cardinal-statesmen of France. At the end of the session this young clerical summed up the demands of the nobility and the clergy in an eloquent address which attracted universal attention.

The session of the States-General was passed in wrangling, and the dissensions of the various orders enabled the government to put them off with promises which it never intended to fulfill. Their quarrels filled the entire French nation with disgust, and the young king rejoiced at seeing the national legislature of his realm give so complete a spectacle of its incapacity to discharge its duties. The Third Estate, or commons, having offended the queen, King Louis XIII. suddenly dissolved the States-General and forbade them ever to assemble again, March 24, 1615. This great national legislature was not again convoked until 1789, one hundred and seventy-four years later, on the eve of the great French Revolution, as we shall see in a subsequent section of this volume.

Louis XIII. was married to Anne of Austria late in the year 1615. The Prince of Condé, who had twice taken up arms to force the French court to put an end to its intimate relations with Austria and Spain and to renew the alliances of Henry IV. against the two branches of the House of Hapsburg, bitterly opposed this royal marriage. He and his party were supported by the Parliament of Paris, which refused to register the decrees which the court issued to destroy that powerful leader and his partisans; and Mary de Medici was obliged to make lavish grants to him in order to silence his opposition.

The Prince of Condé was especially hostile to the queen mother's Italian favorite, Marshal d'Ancre; and the marshal felt himself so unsafe at court that he took refuge in Normandy. It was believed that the Prince of Condé contemplated to remove the queen mother from power by force; but in this design he encountered a formidable opponent in Richelieu, who had risen rapidly since the meeting of the States General, and who now occupied a seat in the Council of State. This ambitious prelate supported the interests of Mary de Medici with great vigor; and Marshal d' Ancre, who had perceived Richelieu's talents, thought that he had now secured a useful instrument in the promotion of the ambitious bishop.

Richelieu soon took the decisive step of advising the queen mother to arrest the Prince of Condé, who was accordingly taken into custody in August, 1616, as he was leaving the council chamber, and he was imprisoned in the Bastile. The other leaders of his party fled from Paris; but their adherents made an effort to excite an insurrection in the city, and plundered and destroyed Marshal d'Ancre's elegant mansion. The riot was soon quelled, and Marshal d'Ancre returned to the capital, but his insolence soon made him detested by all but the queen mother. Richelieu was rewarded for his services against the Prince of Condé by being made Secretary of State, in November, 1616, through the influence of Marshal d'Ancre, who still congratulated himself on using the ambitious prelate as his instrument.

In 1616 Louis XIII. was sixteen years of age, and he was beginning to chafe under the restraints which his mother and her Italian favorite were imposing upon him. The young king thoroughly despised Marshal d'Ancre, and chose the Sieur de Luines, a young man of pleasing manners and great ambition, as his confidant. This man, who became the king's falconer, had an unbounded influence over Louis XIII., and sought to advance his own fortunes by prejudicing the young king against Marshal d'Ancre, who had also quarreled with Richelieu, who now felt sufficiently powerful to

separate himself from the party of the queen and her Italian favorite. Thus there were two parties at the French court, led by the respective favorites of the king and his mother.

The Sieur de Luines succeeded so well in his machinations against Marshal d'Ancre that the young king had the marshal arrested April 24, 1617. The marshal having made a slight movement which was supposed to be an effort at resistance, he was shot down by the royal guard while on his way to the Louvre. The young king, who beheld the tragic scene from a window of the Louvre, cried aloud: "Thank you, good friends! I am now a king!"

The populace of Paris hailed the assassination of Marshal d'Ancre with the greatest delight and they disinterred his body, dragged it through the streets, and burned it. The murdered marshal's wife was tried on a frivolous charge of sorcery, and was executed on the Place de Grève. The property of both the marshal and his wife was confiscated and conferred upon the young king's favorite. The queen mother, Mary de Medici, was arrested on the day of the assassination of her favorite, and was afterward exiled to Blois; while Richelieu was dismissed to his bishopric of Luçon.

The Sieur de Luines was now at the head of affairs in France. The new Council of State, like the old, favored the House of Hapsburg; and its policy hastened the Thirty Years' War in Germany. The king's favorite sought to enrich himself and his family. He was created a duke and a peer of France, was appointed Governor of the Isle de France and of Picardy, and received the daughter of the Duke de Montbazon in marriage. Two of his brothers were likewise made dukes. His rapacity soon made him universally unpopular, and the discontented French nobles gathered at the queen mother's court at Blois, which became the seat of a most formidable and resolute opposition to King Louis XIII. and his favorite. The Duke d'Epernon rescued Mary de Medici from the Castle of Blois, February 22, 1619, and conducted her safely into the province of Angoulême.

Louis XIII. and his favorite were seriously alarmed at the imminence of civil war. Conscious of his inability to confront the impending storm, the Sieur de Luines appealed to Richelieu, who had remained in quiet retirement, awaiting what he was aware of would be the consequence of the kingly favorite's effort at government. Richelieu hastened to the queen mother's court, and succeeded in effecting a reconciliation between her and her son, thus averting the danger of civil war. The Prince of Condé was liberated from the Bastile, and joined the party of the king and the Sieur de Luines, who hoped that the released prince would prove a valuable ally against the queen mother and her party.

In 1620 a dispute arose between France and Spain concerning the Valtelline territory in Northern Italy. This long and narrow valley, watered by the river Adda, and extending from Lake Como to the frontiers of the Tyrol, had formerly been under the dominion of the Dukes of Milan; but the last of the Sforzas had ceded it to the Swiss canton of Grisons. It was very important to the Spaniards during the wars in Germany, as it afforded a passage into that country from Milan. As the inhabitants of the Valtelline were Catholics they resisted the dominion of the Protestant Swiss. In July, 1620, they rose against their Swiss rulers, massacred all whom they got into their power, and solicited protection from the neighboring Spaniards. The Spaniards sent troops to seize all the fortresses in the valley. The French government made a demand upon the Spanish court that the Spanish troops evacuate the Valtelline, and a treaty to that effect was signed in the spring of 1621, but was never carried into execution.

King Louis XIII. now proceeded to annex the little Protestant province of Bearn, on the north side of the Pyrenees, to the crown of France, and ordered the Roman Catholic religion to be reëstablished therein. This action of the king produced a revolt of the inhabitants of the province, whose cause

was quickly espoused by the Huguenots throughout France. The king mustered an army to reduce the Huguenots to submission, and disgusted the entire kingdom by appointing the Sieur de Luines to the office of Constable of France.

The new religious war in France commenced in the spring of 1621. The Constable de Luines was utterly incompetent for the execution of the task imposed upon him. After some insignificant successes in Poitou, he besieged Montauban, the chief fortress of the Huguenots in the province of Languedoc, where his incapacity was completely manifested. Notwithstanding the efforts of the royal army, the advance of a Huguenot force under the Duke de Rohan forced King Louis XIII. to raise the siege, after he had lost eight thousand of his troops. The Constable de Luines died soon after this humiliation, December 14, 1621, from the effects of a malignant fever; his death being regretted by none, not even by the king.

The civil and religious war continued with vigor after the death of the incompetent Constable de Luines; and in 1622 the Huguenots experienced a great loss in the defection of Marshal Lesdiguières, one of the ablest soldiers of the time, who deserted the Huguenot cause, embraced the Catholic faith, and was made Constable of France by King Louis XIII. The revolt was crushed in the provinces of Languedoc and Guienne, and the city of Montpellier was finally compelled to surrender to the royal army. By the Peace of Montpellier, October 19, 1622, the Huguenots surrendered all the fortified towns guaranteed to them by the previous treaties, excepting the strongholds of Montauban and La Rochelle.

The office of Prime Minister had been made vacant by the death of the Constable de Luines; and it was for some time warmly contested by the queen mother, Mary de Medici, and the Prince of Condé. Richelieu zealously supported the queen mother, thus enabling her to triumph over her rival. Richelieu's genius had already commenced making itself felt in the royal councils, and his ambition became manifest to all. Men of all parties in France felt instinctively that he would make himself master of France when the opportunity presented itself, and all united in an effort to exclude the ambitious prelate from the Council of State. Louis XIII. personally disliked Richelieu, and long refused to admit him to any share of power; but the young king finally yielded to his mother's solicitations by fulfilling the promise which he had made to Richelieu long before, and accordingly asked the Pope to confer a cardinal's hat upon Richelieu.

His Holiness, Pope Gregory XV., created Richelieu a cardinal of the Holy Roman Church, September 5, 1622. This was only a step to the triumph of the great churchman and statesman. The weakness of the royal government was becoming more apparent daily, and the ambitious designs of Spain and Austria under the Hapsburgs were causing serious alarm in France. Louis XIII. changed his Ministers repeatedly, but none was found sufficiently competent to conduct France safely through the perplexities in which she was involved; and the young king was finally obliged to heed the urgent solicitations of his mother by summoning Cardinal Richelieu to a place in the Council of State, which was accordingly done April 26, 1624.

Louis XIII. had intended that Cardinal Richelieu should only hold a subordinate position in the Council of State, but the king was unable to prevent the genius of the great cardinal-statesman whom he had so reluctantly summoned to his aid from asserting itself. Before Richelieu had been in the council six months he was the real ruler of France; and the king, the court and the entire nation acknowledged his supremacy. He infused his indomitable energy into every branch of the public service, and the French government suddenly acquired a strength which was felt throughout the entire kingdom.

Cardinal Richelieu himself alluded to the condition of France when he came into power as follows: "I may say with truth that at the time of my entrance upon office

the Huguenots divided the power of the state with Your Majesty; that the great nobles conducted themselves as if they were not your subjects, and the governors of provinces as if they were independent subjects in their own dominions. Foreign alliances were depreciated and misunderstood; private interests preferred to those of the state; and, in a word, the majesty of the crown was degraded to such a depth of abasement that it was scarcely to be recognized at all."

From the moment that Richelieu entered upon the office of Prime Minister of France, he pursued a consistent and undeviating policy, the principal objects of which were the destruction of the Huguenots as a political party, the firm establishment of the royal authority over the nobility of France, and the reëstablishment of French ascendency in Europe by the systematic humiliation of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

In pursuance of his policy, Cardinal Richelieu endeavored to weaken the German Empire and Spain by forming an alliance between France and the Protestant powers of Northern Europe. His first step was the negotiation of a marriage between Charles, Prince of Wales, son of King James I. of England, and the Princess Henrietta Maria, a sister of King Louis XIII. A match which had previously been arranged between this British prince and a Spanish infanta was broken off, and the marriage arranged by Richelieu occurred in May, 1625.

Cardinal Richelieu furnished the German Protestants with funds, and permitted them to enlist troops in France; while a French army was sent into the Valtelline, which was held by the Austrians and the Spaniards, and which furnished them a direct communication between Northern Italy and the Tyrol. A campaign of several weeks ended in the complete expulsion of the Austrian forces from the Valtelline, all the fortresses of which were occupied by French troops. Pope Urban VIII. looked with open disfavor upon Cardinal Richelieu's attacks upon the principal Catholic powers of Europe, and protested against his course; but Richelieu told the Pope very plainly that, while he acknowledged his duties as a prince of the Roman Catholic Church, his first allegiance was due to France, whose interests and dignity were his first objects under any and all circumstances.

Cardinal Richelieu was obliged to suspend the operation of his plans against Austria, in consequence of an unexpected revolt of the Huguenots under the Dukes de Rohan and Soubise in the summer of 1625. Richelieu proceeded with vigor against the Huguenot rebels; and, with the aid of a fleet furnished by Protestant England and Protestant Holland, he defeated the Huguenot fleet off La Rochelle, and reduced that Huguenot stronghold to great extremities.

Richelieu was obliged to make peace with the Huguenots in consequence of the existence of a formidable conspiracy against his power and his life; and in February, 1626, the Huguenots were granted favorable terms. In March of the same year a treaty was made with Spain, France restoring the Valtelline to the Swiss canton of the Grisons, from which it had been wrested by Spain and Austria in 1620. Richelieu was subjected to severe censure and ridicule for his leniency to the Huguenots on this occasion, but he was well aware that the time had not yet come for the success of his plans.

The plot against Cardinal Richelieu's power had been skillfully organized by Gaston, Duke of Anjou, the only brother of King Louis XIII., and included many of the leading nobles of France. The young queen was also a party to it. The conspirators intended to assassinate the cardinal-statesman at his country seat, and to make Gaston his successor in power. Richelieu discovered the plot. Gaston betrayed his confederates, and threw himself upon the mercy of his brother, the king, who rewarded Gaston's treachery by making him Duke of Orleans, with the immense revenues of that duchy; but the other conspirators were beheaded or exiled. The young queen was summoned before the Council of State, and was severely reprimanded for

her share in the conspiracy, thus increasing the coldness which had for some time existed between herself and her royal husband. Thenceforth the queen and the cardinal-statesman were avowed enemies. In consequence of this conspiracy, Richelieu's power became more firmly established than ever.

In 1627 Cardinal Richelieu gave a startling evidence of the vigor with which he intended to humble the French nobles by bringing them to the foot of the throne. A royal ordinance was issued against duelling, which had become a serious evil among the gallants of the French court. In defiance of this royal ordinance, the Counts de Bouteville and Des Chapelles engaged in a desperate encounter in the Place Royale at Paris. They were arrested by Richelieu's order, tried, convicted, and beheaded with a grim firmness which filled the entire French nobility with terror.

In 1627 the Huguenots of La Rochelle again revolted, and this time England sided with the Huguenots against King Louis XIII. The Duke of Buckingham, the Prime Minister of King Charles I. of England, had conceived a foolish feeling for the queen of Louis XIII.; and Richelieu exposed and ridiculed this. For the purpose of obtaining revenge upon the cardinal-statesman of France, the Duke of Buckingham induced the English king to aid the Huguenots. The Huguenot cause was popular in England, and the Huguenots might have derived some advantage from this alliance had a more popular leader than the Duke of Buckingham been chosen to lead the English fleet of one hundred vessels and the English land force sent to the relief of La Rochelle in July, 1627.

Cardinal Richelieu had in the meantime made extraordinary exertions for the reduction of La Rochelle. With a splendidly equipped and powerful army he laid siege to the Huguenot stronghold, and proved himself an able general as well as a great statesman. The Huguenots made a heroic defense, but the English fleet which attempted to relieve the beleaguered stronghold was defeated with great loss. The Duke of Buckingham then sailed back to England, thus leaving the Huguenots to defend their stronghold single-handed against the royal forces of France.

Richelieu closely invested La Rochelle by land, and constructed a mole across the mouth of the harbor, which he fortified, thus cutting off relief for the city by sea. Two English fleets sent to the relief of the starving Huguenots of La Rochelle were unable to enter the harbor on account of the barrier which Richelieu had erected there, and consequently retired. After a siege of fifteen months, during which half of the inhabitants perished from famine, and during which the Huguenot garrison was reduced to less than two hundred men, La Rochelle surrendered to Richelieu, October 28, 1628.

The triumphant cardinal-statesman used his victory with moderation. He declared that the age of persecution for conscience sake had gone by, and that the king had waged war upon the people of La Rochelle not as Huguenots but as rebels. He confirmed the people of the conquered town in the exercise of their religion, but punished them for their rebellion by depriving them of their political rights and destroying the fortifications of the city. Montauban, the last Huguenot stronghold, surrendered in August, 1629; and the Huguenots ceased to exist as a political party.

Spain took advantage of Richelieu's civil war with the Huguenots to try to injure France in Italy by driving the Duke de Nevers, a French nobleman, from the duchies of Mantua and Montferrat, to which he had just succeeded. After the capture of La Rochelle, Cardinal Richelieu induced King Louis XIII. to lead a French army of thirty-six thousand men across the Alps into Italy, in March, 1629, to aid the Duke of Mantua and Montferrat. Charles Emmanuel the Great, Duke of Savoy, who was an enemy of France, was forced to make a treaty of peace; and the Spaniards were compelled to relinquish their designs upon Mantua and Montferrat.

No sooner had the French recrossed the Alps than the Spaniards and the Austrians again invaded Mantua and occupied the territory of the Grisons. The Duke of Savoy entered into a secret alliance with the Spaniards and the Austrians, and prepared to prevent the French army from passing through his territory into Italy. Cardinal Richelieu received the chief command of the French army, and appointed Marshals Bassompierre and Schomberg as his lieutenants. He marched rapidly into Savoy, took Pignerol after a siege of three days, and also captured a number of other fortresses in the duchy. The French forces soon overran Savoy and the marquisate of Saluces, so that the allies were obliged to make peace.

By the Treaty of Cherasco, in April, 1631, the Austrians evacuated Mantua, and the Emperor Ferdinand II. of Germany invested the Duke de Nevers with the duchy. Victor Amadeus I., Duke of Savoy, was forced to cede Pignerol and two other fortresses to France. One of the most prominent negotiators of this treaty was Giulio Mazarini, then an agent of Pope Urban VIII. at the ducal court of Savoy, and afterward so famous in French history as Cardinal Mazarin.

Though Richelieu was successful against the enemies of France, he now found himself surrounded by personal enemies, and numerous plots were formed against him. King Louis XIII. was attacked with a dangerous illness at Lyons, while on his way to join the French army in Italy. The queen-mother, Mary de Medici, had become an enemy of Cardinal Richelieu, because she found that she could not rule him, as she before supposed that she could. She took advantage of the king's illness to extort a promise from him that he would dismiss the great cardinal-statesman from office. Louis XIII. consented on condition that no step should be taken against Richelieu until the termination of the war in Italy. When the king recovered his health he manifested a reluctance to deprive himself and his kingdom of the services of his great Prime Minister; but the clamors of his wife, his mother and his courtiers for the dismissal of the cardinal-statesman became louder daily.

In the meantime Cardinal Richelieu returned to court, and finally he quarreled with the queen mother in the king's presence. Louis XIII. ended the quarrel by leaving the palace and proceeding to Versailles. The entire court now considered the great Prime Minister's ruin inevitable, and his enemies openly manifested their exultation. The cardinal-statesman himself was confident that he would be disgraced, and was surprised when he received a summons to meet the king at Versailles. Louis XIII. received Richelieu very cordially, assuring him that he would not listen to any charges against him, and that he would remove from court all who were able or disposed to injure him or thwart his plans. The day upon which these events occurred —November 11, 1630—is still known in France as *The Day of Dupes.*

Cardinal Richelieu now proceeded to take vigorous action against those who had sought to injure him, causing Marshal de Marillac to be executed on a charge of peculation, and banishing his brother, the keeper of the seals, to Chateaudun.

Richelieu then tried to persuade King Louis XIII. that there could be no peace at court until the queen mother was compelled to cease her plottings. The king was very much averse to adopt any stringent measures against his mother; but a fresh rebellion of his brother Gaston, Duke of Orleans, in 1631, said to have been instigated by Mary de Medici, induced Louis XIII. to take a decisive step against her. She was banished from court and sent to Compiègne. Several days afterward the king ordered her to retire to Moulins. She refused to obey her son's order, and fled across the northeastern frontier of France to the Spanish rulers at Brussels. This step was fatal to her, as Louis XIII. sternly refused to permit her to return to France; and she died in exile at Cologne in 1642, the very year of Richelieu's death.

The rebellion of Gaston, Duke of Or-

CARDINAL RICHELIEU AND FATHER JOSEPH.

leans, was suppressed, his estates were confiscated, and he took refuge in Lorraine; but, as he was denied shelter in that province, he fled to Brussels. His followers were imprisoned or exiled. The king's brother continued his plottings at Brussels, and induced a number of discontented French nobles to join in his schemes, among them the Duke de Montmorenci, one of the most illustrious men in France. Gaston invaded France with a small force in 1632, but his army was defeated by the royal troops, and he was again obliged to seek refuge in exile. The saddest result of this unhappy insurrection was the execution of Duke Henry de Montmorenci, who was beheaded at Toulouse, October 30, 1632.

The Thirty Years' War in Germany had now been in progress for more than a decade. In accordance with his policy for weakening the Austrian House of Hapsburg, Richelieu entered into an alliance with King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in 1631, as already noticed; promising him an annual subsidy of four hundred thousand crowns, and thus openly taking sides with the German Protestants against their Emperor and the Catholic League of Germany.

After the death of Gustavus Adolphus in the moment of victory on the bloody field of Lutzen in 1632, Richelieu renewed his alliance with Sweden by a treaty with the Swedish Chancellor, Axel Oxenstiern. The victory of the German imperialists at Nördlingen in September, 1634, appeared to establish the success of the Emperor Ferdinand II.; but Richelieu went about vigorously to neutralize its effects. Accordingly, under her great Prime Minister's direction, France concluded treaties of alliance with Sweden, Holland, the Protestant princes of Germany, Switzerland, and the Duke of Savoy; France agreeing to put four large armies in the field, numbering in the aggregate one hundred and twenty thousand men.

The events of the next three years were unfavorable to France. In 1636 the German imperial army advanced into the French province of Picardy and seriously menaced Paris, but the imperialists were finally obliged to retire with considerable loss. In 1638 the tide turned in favor of the French. Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, who had entered the service of France, captured several fortresses on the Upper Rhine, and defeated the German imperial army at Rheinfeld, March 3, 1638. In December of the same year he captured the strong fortress of Breisach after a siege of six months. The events of 1639 were also favorable to the French; and, after the death of Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, Richelieu annexed Alsace to France. In Italy the French under the Count d'Harcourt defeated the German imperialists in Piedmont, overran that country, and captured Turin in September, 1640, after a siege of more than four months. In the same year the French drove the Spaniards from Artois and annexed that province to the crown of France.

In the meantime Cardinal Richelieu's good fortune did not desert him. He discovered a secret correspondence between the queen and the Spaniards at Brussels, and the queen was so terrified by the discovery of her offense that she confessed her fault to Richelieu and signed a solemn pledge never to commit a similar offense. The cardinal-statesman sought to bring about a reconciliation between Louis XIII. and his queen, in which he succeeded to the satisfaction of both husband and wife. The royal couple had been married for over twenty years, but thus far had no children. Anne now gave birth to a son at the palace of St. Germains, September 5, 1638, who became the heir to the French throne.

Richelieu had selected the gay and brilliant Marquis of Cinq-Mars as the king's companion; but when the cardinal-statesman endeavored to check this nobleman's ambitious schemes the marquis organized a formidable conspiracy against Richelieu, and began a treasonable correspondence with the Spaniards. Richelieu detected this conspiracy, and procured a copy of the treaty which the conspirators had made with

Spain. The Marquis of Cinq-Mars was arrested, along with De Thou, another conspirator; and both were executed at Lyons, September 12, 1642.

In the same year the French took Perpignan from the Spaniards, thus completing the conquest of the province of Roussillon, which was annexed to France. The principality of Sedan also became one of the possessions of the French crown, having been confiscated as a penalty imposed on the Duke of Bouillon for his complicity in the plot of the Marquis of Cinq-Mars.

Cardinal Richelieu was now at the height of his power and greatness. He was supreme in France, and had made his country great at home and feared abroad. He had given his king the first place in France, and had given France the first place in Europe. He had humbled the Huguenots and the French nobles at home, and had humiliated the proud House of Hapsburg and all the other foreign enemies of France; but all this time he was sinking under a mortal disease, and he died December 4, 1642, in the fifty-eighth year of his age.

Richelieu was a great patron of science and literature, and many scientific and literary institutions in France date from his time. He founded the *French Academy* in 1635, for the purpose of improving the French language and the literary taste of the French people.

Louis XIII., who owed his proud position in France and Europe entirely to Richelieu's able statesmanship and diplomacy, coldly remarked upon hearing of his great Prime Minister's death: "There is a great politician gone." The only change which the king made in the Ministry selected by Richelieu was to assign a seat in the Council of State to the Italian Cardinal Mazarin.

In less than six months King Louis XIII. followed his great Prime Minister to the grave, dying at the palace of St. Germains, May 14, 1643, on the anniversary of his illustrious father's assassination, having thus reigned exactly thirty-three years, A. D. 1610–1643. Louis XIII. left the regency for his little son and successor, LOUIS XIV., to his widow, Anne of Austria, and appointed his brother, Gaston, Duke of Orleans, to the office of Lieutenant-General of the kingdom. The king's will also appointed a Council of State, consisting of Cardinal Mazarin, the Prince of Condé, the Chancellor Seguier, and Chavigny and Bouthillier, Secretaries of State.

As soon as the queen mother, Anne of Austria, was confirmed in the regency she dismissed the Council of Regency and made Mazarin her Prime Minister—a selection which surprised all parties, as Mazarin had been the faithful subordinate of Richelieu, her old enemy. But the choice was good, as Mazarin was a man of great genius; and, as Louis XIV. was not yet five years old, the queen-regent very well knew that she would need a competent adviser during her little son's long minority, and she therefore selected the one best adapted to the position.

Cardinal Mazarin's policy and aims were the same as those of his illustrious predecessor, Richelieu, and he prosecuted the war against Austria and Spain with great vigor. The German imperialists resumed hostilities immediately upon Richelieu's death; while the Spanish forces from the Netherlands laid siege to the fortress of Rocroi, but were decisively defeated by the French under the Duke d'Enghien in the battle of Rocroi, May 19, 1643.

The French arms in Germany, under Marshal Turenne and the Duke d'Enghien, defeated the imperialists at Nördlingen, August 7, 1645. The Duke d'Enghien, with the assistance of the Dutch fleet under Admiral Van Tromp, took the important sea-port of Dunkirk, on the North Sea, from the Spaniards, in October, 1646. The Duke d'Enghien returned to France in 1647, and succeeded to the title of Prince of Condé upon his father's death about the same time.

Cardinal Mazarin, who dreaded the new Prince of Condé's influence at court, sent the great general to Catalonia to aid the revolted Catalans against the Spaniards. The Prince of Condé laid siege to Lerida in May, 1647; but he was obliged to raise the siege, in spite of his great genius; whereupon he

returned to France in utter disgust, and bitterly reproached Mazarin for failing to sustain him. Mazarin was profuse in his excuses, and immediately appointed the Prince of Condé to the command of the French army in Flanders. The great general took the town of Ypres in May, 1648, drove the German imperial troops out of the French province of Picardy, and defeated the imperial army under Archduke Leopold at Lens, in Artois, August, 1648.

In the meantime the French arms under Marshal Turenne also triumphed in Germany. In 1648 Turenne, in conjunction with the Swedes, defeated the German imperial army under the Italian general Montecuculi near Augsburg, and would have marched upon Vienna had he not been prevented by a sudden rise of the river Inn.

The successes of the French arms, particularly the victory at Lens, hastened the peace negotiations, which had been in progress for five years, to a conclusion; and the Treaty of Westphalia, October 24, 1648, ended the Thirty Years' War, as already noticed. This famous treaty was highly advantageous to France, which received all of Alsace except Strasburg, thus extending her eastern frontier to the Rhine. The town of Breisach, on the east side of the Rhine, was ceded to France; while the fortress of Philipsburg was to be garrisoned by French troops. The three bishoprics of Toul, Verdun and Metz were confirmed to France, in whose possession they had now been for almost a century; and the duchy of Lorraine was also virtually ceded to France by being left to her until an amicable arrangement could be effected with its dispossessed duke. France also obtained the fortress of Pignerol in Piedmont.

Thus the Thirty Years' War had been, on the whole, favorable to France. The power of the Austrian House of Hapsburg had been humbled, and the Germano-Roman Empire was practically destroyed, while France had become the leading power of Europe. France and Spain, however, did not come to terms; and the war between them lasted eleven years longer.

In the very year that the Thirty Years' War closed, France began to be distracted by serious internal troubles. Cardinal Mazarin's rapacity and misgovernment, which had full sway in consequence of his complete influence over the queen-regent, Anne of Austria, was rapidly involving the French kingdom in serious financial embarrassments, which eventually brought on a disastrous civil war. Richelieu had left a full treasury, but the resources which he had so carefully husbanded were soon squandered by Mazarin, and recourse was had to the most oppressive and obnoxious expedients in order to meet the enormous expenses of the war and the extravagance of the court.

An impost levied upon all merchandise brought into Paris for sale by land or water, and levied upon all classes indiscriminately, encountered serious opposition on the part of the Parliament of Paris, thus arraying that tribunal in direct antagonism to the French crown. The quarrel increased in bitterness daily; and finally the court was guilty of a serious error in taking advantage of the rejoicings which greeted the intelligence of the great French victory at Lens, to arrest three of the chief leaders of the opposition in the Parliament of Paris—Blancmesnil, Broussel and Charton.

The populace of Paris had sided with the Parliament from the very beginning of the troubles, and when the three popular leaders were arrested the Parisians rose in open revolt against the government and barricaded the principal streets; while an angry mob surrounded the Palais Royal, demanding the release of Broussel, who was extremely popular. The Cardinal de Retz, Archbishop Coadjutor of Paris, represented to the queen mother, Anne of Austria, the danger of the situation, and urged her to comply with the popular demand by releasing Broussel; but the queen mother refused to release the popular leader, and troops were marched into the Palais Royal to protect the court.

Cardinal de Retz joined the rebels when the queen-regent refused to take his advice, and became one of the chief leaders of the

insurrection. The next day, August 27, 1648, the outbreak showed such vigor, and such alarming signs of spreading, that the queen-regent released the arrested members of the Parliament of Paris; and they returned to the city the next day amid the rejoicings of the populace. The affair appeared settled for the time, but the trouble had only really commenced, so that August 27, 1648, may be considered the date of the beginning of the four years' civil war known as the *War of the Frondé.*

Order appeared to be restored outwardly; but the Parliament of Paris proved so insolent and unmanageable that the queen-regent retired from Paris with the boy king and Cardinal Mazarin, and went to Rueil. The intervention of the Prince of Condé brought about a reconciliation between the queen-regent and the Parliament of Paris in October, 1648, Anne of Austria granting the demands of the Parliament unconditionally. The queen-regent shed tears while signing this document, which she declared to be the suicide of the royal authority in France.

Soon afterward the Prince of Condé became disgusted with the arrogance and insubordination of the Parisian populace, and offered his services to the court to reduce them to submission. He collected an army of eight thousand men near Paris; and the queen-regent, the boy king and the rest of the royal family, accompanied by Cardinal Mazarin, secretly retired from Paris to St. Germains, January 6, 1649. At the same time a royal order was issued commanding the Parliament of Paris to transfer its sittings to Montargis. The Parliament refused to obey this command, at the same time denouncing Cardinal Mazarin as a public enemy, and demanding his banishment from France.

Many of the leading nobles of France espoused the cause of the Frondé, which was likewise sustained by most of the provincial parliaments of the kingdom There was fighting between the troops of the Prince of Condé and the forces of the Parliament of Paris near that city, but the cause of the Frondé gained strength daily. Marshal Turenne joined the Frondé, thus furnishing the popular party with a great military leader able to cope with the Prince of Condé on the royal side. The rebels were also promised assistance by the Archduke Leopold, the Governor of the Spanish Netherlands.

The court now desired peace, and Mazarin negotiated a treaty with a deputation from the Parliament of Paris headed by the president Molé, at Rueil, March 11, 1649. The conditions of the treaty were not as favorable as the Parliament had desired, and that body at first refused to register it. The infuriated mob of Paris threatened to assassinate Molé and the other members of the Parliamentary deputation which had negotiated the treaty. By modifying some of the most objectionable provisions of the treaty, Cardinal Mazarin secured its acceptance by the Parliament of Paris. He likewise gained over the leading officers of Marshal Turenne's army, who deserted the marshal and espoused the cause of the court. Thereupon Marshal Turenne retired into Holland, thus leaving the Frondé without a competent military leader. The court returned to Paris in August, 1649.

The Prince of Condé, who presumed upon the great services which he had rendered the state, now endeavored to secure control of the entire power of the government. His insolence and insubordination became so intolerable that the queen-regent and Cardinal Mazarin resolved to arrest him. The Prince of Condé, and also his brother, the Prince of Conti, and his brother-in-law, the Duke de Longueville, were arrested in the council chamber January 18, 1650, and were imprisoned in the Castle of Vincennes. The partisans of the Prince of Condé thereupon rose in arms against the court. The province of Burgundy, of which he was governor, openly revolted; and the Duchess de Longueville excited outbreaks in Normandy, of which province her husband was governor. The city of Bordeaux took up arms for the Prince of Condé, placing itself under the orders of the fearless and devoted Princess

of Condé, the niece of Cardinal Richelieu.

The royal troops soon restored tranquillity in Normandy, and soon also reduced Burgundy to submission. Bordeaux was forced to surrender, after a siege, during which the Princess of Condé displayed the greatest heroism. The princess and her partisans were permitted to retire peaceably to their estates, but the court resolutely refused her petition for the release of her husband and his fellow-captives. Marshal Turenne, who had been joined by a Spanish force, won some important successes in the province of Picardy; but he was thoroughly defeated near Rhetel by the Marshal du Plessis-Praslin, December 15, 1650, whereupon he fled into the province of Lorraine with a few followers.

The triumph of the court now appeared complete; but a reaction set in at Paris in favor of the imprisoned princes, and the leaders of the original Frondé headed a coalition against Cardinal Mazarin. The Parliament of Paris demanded the banishment of the cardinal-statesman, who became so terrified by the strength of the opposition that he fled secretly to Havre, February 8, 1651. The queen-regent prepared to follow him with the boy king; but she was prevented from doing so by the leaders of the Frondé, who insisted upon entering the palace to satisfy themselves of the presence of the court.

In the meantime Cardinal Mazarin hastened to Havre and ordered the release of the captive princes, hoping to gain their support by his promptness; but they treated him coldly, and hastened to Paris after their liberation. The cardinal-statesman retired to Bruhl, in the territory of Cologne, whence he maintained a correspondence with the queen-regent, by which he continued to direct the affairs of state in France.

The Prince of Condé expected to find himself supreme in power when he returned to Paris; but he discovered that the queen-regent was still bitterly hostile to him, and that the leaders of the Frondé were disinclined to acknowledge his authority. The queen-regent finally brought matters to a crisis by accusing him before the Parliament of Paris of being guilty of a treasonable correspondence with the Spaniards. The Prince of Condé was so enraged by this accusation that he hastened to his province of Guienne, where he headed an open armed rebellion against the court.

The queen-regent now declared her son of age, and accordingly young Louis XIV. took his place at the head of the army designed to take the field against the Prince of Condé. Cardinal Mazarin now boldly returned to Paris and rejoined the court; and Marshal Turenne, who had made his peace with the court, was assigned a command in the royal army.

A desultory warfare followed without any decisive result for either party; and late in the spring of 1652 both armies—the royalists under Marshal Turenne, and the Frondeurs under the Prince of Condé—marched to Paris, which had not yet pronounced for either party. A desperate battle was fought in the Faubourg St. Antoine, July 2, 1652, which was decided by Mademoiselle de Montpensier, the daughter of the Duke of Orleans, who caused the cannon of the Bastile to open fire upon the royal forces at the critical moment. Thereupon the citizens threw open the Porte St. Antoine, thus allowing the army of the Prince of Condé to enter the city. Marshal Turenne, who had felt confident of victory, then retreated to St. Denis.

The Prince of Condé was master of Paris for some time, and it appeared that the capital was about to fully espouse the cause of the Frondé; but the fickle Parisians suddenly changed sides and commenced treating with the youthful king. The Prince of Condé found his influence wholly destroyed by the trickery of the Cardinal de Retz; and he accordingly retired from Paris in utter disgust in October, 1652, and joined the Spanish army under the Duke of Lorraine.

Louis XIV. and his mother, escorted by Marshal Turenne's army, entered Paris several days afterward, amid the rejoicings of the populace, and occupied the Louvre. The young king granted a general amnes-

ty, from which the Prince of Condé, the Duke of Beaufort and several other leaders of the Frondé were specially excepted. The Prince of Condé was condemned to death as a traitor. The Duke of Orleans was ordered to retire to Blois, where he died in 1660. The Cardinal de Retz, who had been the most active man in France in fomenting the troubles, was imprisoned in Vincennes. He was afterward liberated from prison, but the rest of his life was passed in obscurity.

Thus ended the civil wars of the Frondé, which had agitated France for four years, A. D. 1648–1652. It was the final struggle of the feudal nobility of France against absolute royal power. It had produced the greatest discomfort and even actual privation upon the royal family of France, and its effect was to confirm Louis XIV. in his ideas of despotic rule. The French nobles utterly failed in their efforts to limit the royal power, and the failure of the revolt enabled the young king to erect an absolute monarchy in France.

As the civil war of the Frondé was now ended, Cardinal Mazarin was able to direct his attention to the war with Spain. The Spaniards had profited greatly by the internal troubles of France; having recovered Dunkirk, Ypres and Gravelines in the Netherlands, and Barcelona in Catalonia and Casale in Northern Italy. The Spanish army on the frontier of Picardy was now under the command of the Prince of Condé, and that able general ravaged the French territory as far as the Somme during the summer of 1653. The French army under Marshal Turenne, though inferior in numbers, was able to hold his great adversary in check during the entire campaign.

In 1654 the Prince of Condé and the Archduke Leopold, at the head of twenty-five thousand Spanish troops, laid siege to Arras, the capital of the valuable province of Artois. Though the siege was conducted with great ability, Marshal Turenne forced the Prince of Condé to raise it and to retreat, leaving three thousand prisoners in the hands of the victorious French. The campaign of 1656 was remarkable for one of the Prince of Condé's most brilliant exploits. He attacked the French division under Marshal de la Ferté, which was separated from Turenne's main army then engaged in the siege of Valenciennes, almost annihilated it, and took the marshal himself, with nearly all his officers and four thousand of his troops, prisoners.

Cardinal Mazarin now induced the Commonwealth of England, then under the iron rule of its famous Lord Protector, Oliver Cromwell, to enter into an alliance with France against Spain. An English force of six thousand infantry under General Reynolds reinforced Marshal Turenne, who captured Montmedy, St. Venant and Mardyke in 1656; the last fortress being turned over to the English.

The allied French and English forces then laid siege to Dunkirk. A Spanish army under the Prince of Condé and Don John of Austria marched to the relief of the beleaguered fortress, but was defeated with heavy loss by Marshal Turenne in the battle of the Dunes, June 14, 1658. The immediate result of this French victory was the surrender of Dunkirk, which France ceded to England in accordance with the treaty of alliance. Marshal Turenne then proceeded to the reduction of Gravelines, and overran Flanders, advancing to within two days' march of Brussels.

Spain was so dispirited by her reverses that she now desired peace; her anxiety on the point being increased by the formation of a coalition between France and the German states to uphold the Treaty of Westphalia—a league which virtually isolated Spain from the rest of Europe.

Ever since the Peace of Westphalia the Emperor Ferdinand III., though nominally at peace with France, had been indirectly supplying the Spaniards with money and troops. Duke Charles of Lorraine, who had been driven from his duchy by the French, gladly enlisted German imperial troops under his own banners, and gained many advantages in Flanders and on the frontiers of Germany. To resist his ravages the Elector-Palatine, the Archbishop-Elec-

tors of Cologne, Mayence and Treves, and the Bishop of Münster formed a *Catholic League* for the avowed purpose of enforcing the Treaty of Westphalia. A *Protestant League* was formed in Northern Germany with the same design. Intimidated by these coalitions, the Emperor Ferdinand III. caused the Treaty of Westphalia to be confirmed by the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon in 1654.

Upon the death of Ferdinand III., in 1657, Cardinal Mazarin, with all the German princes who were in the interest of France, sought to prevent the election of another prince of the Austrian House of Hapsburg to the imperial throne of Germany. Mazarin would have gladly obtained the imperial crown for King Louis XIV.; but, as this was impossible, the French interest was exerted in behalf of the young Elector of Bavaria. The eldest son of Ferdinand III. had died before his father; and his second son, Leopold, had been educated only for the church. But Leopold I. was elected Emperor of Germany about sixteen months after his father's death, in spite of the opposition of the French and their German allies, who, however, imposed the most rigorous conditions upon him concerning the war then in progress between France and Spain. Leopold I. solemnly pledged himself not to render any secret or open aid to the enemies of France, and not to interfere in Italy or in the Spanish Netherlands. The fulfillment of this treaty was insured by the consolidation of the Catholic and Protestant Leagues into the *Rhenish League*, under the protection of Louis XIV. The military forces of the Rhenish League were styled "The army of His Most Christian Majesty and of the Allied Electors and Princes."

In October, 1658, King Philip IV. of Spain commenced negotiations for peace with France by proposing that Louis XIV. should marry the Infanta Maria Theresa, the daughter of the Spanish king. Louis XIV. was deeply in love with the beautiful Maria Mancini, Cardinal Mazarin's niece; but Mazarin removed her from court, and induced Louis XIV. to accept the Spanish king's offer.

Cardinal Mazarin proceeded to the Pyrenees and met the Spanish Prime Minister, Don Luis de Haro, on the Isle of Pheasants, in the Bidassoa, a small stream which forms part of the boundary between France and Spain. Negotiations for peace and for the royal marriage were successfully consummated. Spain insisted positively that the Prince of Condé should receive a full and free pardon, be reconciled to the French court, and be restored to all his honors and possessions. For a long time Mazarin refused this demand, but finally yielded when the Spanish Prime Minister threatened to form a principality for the Prince of Condé in Flanders. The Prince of Condé was pardoned for his treason, and was restored to the government of Burgundy; and the Peace of the Pyrenees was signed November 7, 1659.

By the terms of the treaty the Spanish Infanta Maria Theresa was contracted in marriage to Louis XIV., and was promised a dowry of half a million crowns by her father, in consideration of her renunciation of all claims to the succession to the Spanish crown. All the children of this marriage and their descendants were likewise solemnly excluded from the succession to the Spanish crown. Spain ceded to France the county of Artois and the towns of Gravelines, Landrecies, Thionville, Montmedy, Avesnes and a few others, as well as the counties of Roussillon and Cerdagne. Lorraine was nominally restored to its duke, but really remained annexed to the crown of France. As France had succeeded against the Austrian Hapsburgs in the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648, so she succeeded against the Spanish Hapsburgs in the Treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659, and secured for herself the proud position of being the leading power of Europe—a position which she held for a century and a half.

Louis XIV. repaired to St. Jean de Luz, in May, 1660; and, after a magnificent interview with King Philip IV. of Spain at the Isle of Pheasants, he married the In-

fanta Maria Theresa in the Church of St. Jean de Luz, June 9, 1660.

The two Treaties of Westphalia and the Pyrenees secured the supremacy of France in European diplomacy, and, in connection with the marriage of Louis XIV., placed Cardinal Mazarin at the height of his power. Like Richelieu, Mazarin did not long survive this realization of his hopes, but he died March 8, 1661, at the age of fifty-nine. Mazarin was one of the ablest and most unscrupulous of the statesmen who have swayed the destinies of France, and would have left a more honorable name to posterity had it not been for his inordinate and insatiable love of money. Like Richelieu, Mazarin patronized art, literature and education, and founded many colleges and academies in France.

The next day after Cardinal Mazarin's death, King Louis XIV., whose ambition was beginning to make him impatient of restraint, made this important announcement to his Council: "For the future I shall be my own Prime Minister." He was well qualified for the task which he assumed. Mazarin was in the habit of saying of the young king: "There is enough in him to make four kings and one honest man."

Louis XIV. was a man of good judgment, of a firm, determined will, of great sagacity and penetration, and of indomitable energy and perseverance. He possessed great powers of application, and throughout his reign he was occupied eight hours daily with the cares of state. He had imbibed the most exalted ideas of his "divine right" as a king, and considered himself the absolute master of the lives, liberties and property of his subjects, which he became in reality. Thus believing that his royal authority was conferred upon him directly from Heaven, Louis XIV. regarded himself as the author and the source, as well as the dispenser, of all law and justice in his kingdom. He intended that his will should be the law of France, and considered himself responsible only to God for his conduct. The essence of his theory of government was expressed in his celebrated saying: "I am the state." He faithfully adhered to his principles throughout his reign, and succeeded in making France one of the most perfect examples of an absolute and irresponsible despotism in all history.

The reign of Louis XIV. lasted seventy-two years, A. D. 1643–1715; the first eighteen of which embraced the regency of his mother, Anne of Austria, when the government was administered by Cardinal Mazarin. After taking the government into his own hands and appointing no Prime Minister, Louis XIV. ruled in the most absolute and despotic manner for fifty-four years, A. D. 1661–1715; his Ministers being but passive instruments for the execution of his will. Louis XIV. was the greatest monarch of the seventeenth century, and was the greatest of French kings. His reign was one of the most brilliant in French history; and his great generals—Condé, Turenne and Luxemburg—surpassed the generals of all other countries.

The disordered exchequer of France soon felt the master-hand of the able but despotic king. The brilliant but dishonest Finance Minister, Nicholas Fouquet, who had enormously enriched himself by his embezzlements and his falsification of the public accounts, was arrested, tried and convicted in September, 1661, and imprisoned for life in the Bastile. Louis XIV. then appointed the celebrated Jean Baptiste Colbert, a man of stainless integrity and of marked ability as a financier, in Fouquet's place.

Colbert found the public finances in about as wretched a condition as the Duke of Sully had found them during the reign of Henry IV., and he at once set to work with energy and skill to reform them. In the course of a few years he placed the national finances on a secure and stable footing, and raised the gross income of the state to over one hundred million francs, of which over ninety millions reached the national treasury. He introduced a rigid economy into the administration of his departments, thus saving vast sums for the pleasure-loving and war-loving king to squander. Colbert was able to provide funds for the most costly

wars and for the king's extravagance, without increasing the rate of taxation.

Besides being Minister of Finance, Colbert had charge of the departments of commerce, agriculture and public works. He wisely fostered every species of industry which could contribute to the wealth of France, thus making the royal demands easily to be borne; and throughout this brilliant reign France was as much celebrated for her manufactures as for the feats of her arms.

The Minister of War, Louvois, also possessed talents necessary for the direction of great exploits. The great engineer, Vauban, strengthened the fortresses on the French frontiers. Magnificent works—such as the Palace of Versailles, the Louvre, the Hotel des Invalides, and the Canal of Languedoc—are standing monuments of the glory of this reign. French fashions, tastes, language, habits, and modes of thought began to be adopted by the cultured and higher circles of Europe. Louis XIV. was a great patron of literature and the arts; and the period of his reign—known as the *Augustan Age of French Literature*—was adorned by the genius of the dramatists Corneille, Moliere and Racine; the poet Boileau; the fabulist La Fontaine; and the divines Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Massillon, Bayle and Fenelon.

KING LOUIS XIV.

Louis XIV. soon gave a characteristic proof of his determination to assert and maintain his royal dignity. The Spanish ambassador at London having offended him by taking precedence of the French ambassador, Louis XIV. demanded satisfaction of King Philip IV. of Spain, threatening war in case of the Spanish king's refusal to make amends for the affront of his ambassador. Philip IV. was obliged to make a most humble apology and to send to the French court a special envoy, who promised, in the presence of the entire diplomatic body and in the name of his sovereign, never again to give a similar cause of complaint by infringing the claims of His Most Christian Majesty, the King of France.

During the same year Louis XIV. inflicted a similar humiliation upon His Holiness, Pope Alexander VII. Some of the Pope's Corsican guard having insulted the French ambassador at Rome, the Pope was obliged to send messengers to France to beg the great king's pardon in the most humble terms, to disband his Corsican guard, and to erect an obelisk at Rome, bearing an inscription relating the offense and the expiation therefor, as a memorial and a warning for the future.

Louis XIV. began the active part of his reign with designs upon the integrity of the Spanish dominions, by annexing the Spanish Netherlands and Franche-Comté to the crown of France; and every act of the early years of his reign was directed to the consummation of this result. He encouraged the Portuguese, who had achieved their independence of Spain; and he brought

about the alliance of Portugal with England by the marriage of Charles II. of England with the Princess Catharine of Braganza, the daughter of King Alfonso VI. of Portugal. Louis XIV. secured the good will of Charles II. of England by purchasing Dunkirk from him by the payment of five million livres, in November, 1662. Louis XIV. also contracted an offensive and defensive alliance with the Dutch Republic, thus preventing Holland from espousing the cause of Spain against him.

The operations of Louis XIV. were delayed by a war between his English and Dutch allies, which broke out in 1664. Holland appealed to the French king as her ally for aid against England. The King of France was reluctant to go to war with the King of England, and sought to mediate between the belligerent powers. When Louis XIV. found it impossible to accomplish anything in the way of mediation he sent six thousand French troops to assist the Dutch, and declared war against England in January, 1666, as noticed in the preceding section. The Bishop of Münster, England's subsidized German ally, ravaged Holland on the east, until the French king and the German allies of the Dutch Republic forced him to lay down his arms. The war was mainly fought at sea between the English and Dutch fleets, and was ended by the Peace of Breda, July 31, 1667, England restoring to France all the places in North America and the West Indies which she had wrested from her during the struggle.

Before the close of the war just mentioned, Louis XIV. had astonished all Europe by a sudden march into the Spanish Netherlands. King Philip IV. of Spain had died in September, 1665, and had been succeeded on the Spanish throne by his only son Charles II., the issue of a second marriage. Louis XIV. at once claimed the whole Spanish Netherlands and Franche-Comté, on the plea that his wife, Maria Theresa, who was the child of the first marriage of Philip IV. of Spain, had a superior claim to that of Charles II. of Spain, who was the issue of his father's second marriage.

The Spanish court, under the regency of the widow of Philip IV., the mother of Charles II., refused to acknowledge the French king's claim, and reminded Louis XIV. of his wife's relinquishment of all her pretensions to the Spanish dominions at the time of her marriage. Louis XIV. replied that this relinquishment on his wife's part was conditional upon her dowry, and that, as this dowry had never been paid, her surrender of her claims was null and void.

The French king cut short the argument by marching his army under Marshal Turenne into the Spanish Netherlands, May 24, 1667. This French army overran the province of Flanders with very little opposition. Most of the towns submitted to the invaders upon the first demand, though Lille only surrendered August 28, 1667. Louis XIV. made a sudden pause in his career of conquest by concluding a truce of three months with the Spaniards, and returned to Paris.

The ambitious designs and the rapid success of the King of France excited alarm throughout all Europe; and England and Holland, after ending their own war with each other, resolved to put an end to his territorial aggrandizement. Accordingly, a treaty known as the *Triple Alliance* was signed at the Hague between England, Holland and Sweden, January 23, 1668. These three Protestant powers agreed to mediate a peace between Roman Catholic France and Roman Catholic Spain, and to force a settlement between them by threatening war in case of their refusal. They engaged to induce Spain to cede all the places which the French had already conquered, on condition that Louis XIV. should promise to relinquish his claim upon the Spanish dominions in right of his wife.

Before Louis XIV. had been officially informed of the conclusion of the Triple Alliance he had sent an army of twenty thousand men under the Prince of Condé into Franche-Comté, and this French army overran that Spanish province in fifteen days. Well satisfied with this brilliant military exploit of the Prince of Condé, Louis XIV. consented to the Peace of Aix la Chapelle,

which was signed May 2, 1668; Louis XIV. retaining all his conquests in the Spanish Netherlands, but restoring Franche-Comté after all its fortresses had been dismantled by the French troops; while the three powers which had concluded the Triple Alliance, along with the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and the German princes, guaranteed the integrity of the remainder of the Spanish dominions.

Though the Triple Alliance ended one war, it led to another of far greater dimensions. The Dutch Republic was now at the height of its power and glory; being the protectress of the power which by her heroic struggle for independence she had contributed most to humble, while being also the successful rival of England in the dominion of the seas, as well as the deliverer of Denmark from the ambitious grasp of Sweden. Holland was thus able to interpose a formidable barrier to the ambitious career of Louis XIV. himself; but the "Grand Monarch" was resolved upon revenge upon the powerful little republic which had originated that Triple Alliance which had so suddenly cut short his conquest of the entire Spanish dominion in the Netherlands. As the champion of absolute royal power, Louis XIV. cherished a special hatred toward the Dutch Republic because it afforded a generous asylum to all exiles from civil or religious tyranny.

Louis's Ministers, Louvois and Colbert, encouraged their king's design by telling him that he could never reduce the Spanish Netherlands until he had humbled and subdued Holland. He accordingly proceeded to break up the Triple Alliance, and succeeded in buying off the unprincipled Charles II. of England, who agreed to desert his allies in consideration of an annual subsidy of three million francs, the possession of the island of Walcheren, and two fortresses on the Scheldt in case of the conquest of Holland. The unscrupulous King of England also agreed to aid the King of France with a force of six thousand men and fifty ships of war, and to become a Roman Catholic and to do all in his power to restore that faith as the state religion of England; Louis XIV. promising to aid him with French troops and French money.

By bribery, Louis XIV. also secured the neutrality of Sweden and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, and the active alliance of the Archbishop-Elector of Cologne and the Bishop of Münster. But Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, was the faithful ally of Holland; while the Archbishop-Electors of Mayence and Treves, the Elector of Saxony and the Margrave of Baireuth entered into a league to oppose the ambitious designs of the French king and to defend the independence of the German Empire.

Holland stood almost alone against the rest of Christendom; but in December, 1671, Spain, after being delivered from the corrupt and incompetent Jesuit Prime Minister, Niethard, and anxious to check the alarming increase of the French power, concluded an alliance with the Dutch Republic, which had reduced her to such deplorable weakness, but which had so recently saved her from the ambitious grasp of the King of France. William, Prince of Orange, then twenty-one years of age, was created Captain-General of the forces of the Dutch Republic for the first campaign.

France and England declared war against Holland at very nearly the same time in the spring of 1672, and equally without honorable cause. In April of that year Louis XIV. with an army of two hundred thousand men, directed by the great genius of the Prince of Condé and Marshal Turenne, crossed the Lower Rhine at three points, and in the course of a few weeks overran the territories of the Dutch Republic, occupying the provinces of Guelders, Utrecht and Overyssel, and part of the province of Holland. At the head of the main division, the French king was attended by Louvois, his Minister of War, and by Vauban, his famous military engineer. For the first time the bayonet, so terrible a weapon in French hands, and named from the city of Bayonne, where it was first made, was affixed to the end of the musket.

The Dutch, who could at most raise an army of only thirty thousand men, were for the moment paralyzed with dismay at this gigantic invasion. So utterly helpless were they rendered by terror that it was said that "every man seemed to have received sentence of death." In the forlorn hope of securing what yet remained of the Dutch Republic, the Grand Pensionary, or Prime Minister of Holland, offered the most abject terms of peace. But Louvois induced his king to reject these terms; and so haughty and insulting was the reply of Louis XIV. that it aroused a storm of indignation against the Grand Pensionary, John De Witt, and his brother, the Admiral Cornelius De Witt, that both were assassinated by a furious mob in the streets of the Dutch capital, thus bringing about a revolution which resulted in elevating the young Prince William of Orange to the head of the Dutch Republic with the offices of Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral for life with dictatorial powers.

Prince William of Orange proceeded vigorously to arouse his countrymen to a more determined spirit of resistance. He proposed to the States-General that, rather than yield to the insolent demands of the French king, the entire Dutch nation—men, women and children—should abandon their country, embark on board their fleet, with such movable property as they could take with them, and sail to their possessions in the East Indies, where they should seek new homes; so that the Dutch Republic thenceforth would have existed in tropical regions on the other side of the globe.

But, through the genius and determination of Prince William of Orange, the tide soon turned in favor of the Dutch, whose navy was able to hold its own in struggles with the united fleets of France and England. The advance of the French army in the Dutch territories was arrested by opening the dykes around Amsterdam by the orders of William of Orange, thus laying the country under water, and enabling the Dutch fleet to approach the capital and to assist in its defense. Thus the Dutch gained valuable time to prepare for defense against the invaders.

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany offered to aid the imperilled republic on certain conditions, notwithstanding his promised neutrality; and Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, also entered into an alliance with the Dutch. A German imperial army of forty thousand men under the Italian general Montecuculi marched to the Rhine; but the masterly movements of the French under Marshal Turenne prevented this imperial army from effecting a junction with the Dutch forces under the Prince of Orange. The Great Elector of Brandenburg lost patience and retreated to his own dominions, pursued by Marshal Turenne as far as the Elbe. The diversion afforded the Dutch some relief, though it did no more for them.

The freezing of the canals early in 1673 enabled a French army of thirty thousand men under Marshal Luxemburg to invade Holland, but a sudden thaw forced this army to retreat without accomplishing anything. The French took Maestricht and Treves in 1673; and during the same year Louis XIV. in person occupied the ten imperial cities of Alsace, the prefecture of which had been granted to him by the Peace of Westphalia, and reduced them to absolute subjection, compelling them to renounce the privileges guaranteed to them by that treaty.

A closer alliance between the Dutch Republic, the German Empire and Spain now threatened France with a general European war. The Prince of Orange captured Naarden after a siege of twelve days, and effected a junction with the German imperial army under Montecuculi, notwithstanding Marshal Turenne's effort to prevent it. The capture of Bonn by the allies, after a short siege, gave them command of the Rhine, and forced the French to evacuate Holland early in 1674, thus rescuing the Dutch Republic from the ambition of the "Grand Monarch," who, of all his conquests, retained only Grave and Maestricht.

For some time the English people and

Parliament had been anxious to put an end to the degrading alliance which King Charles II. had entered into with Louis XIV., and they finally forced their king to make peace with the Dutch Republic. By the Peace of Westminster, in February, 1674, England and Holland restored the conquests which they had made from each other during the war. Sweden now remained as the only ally of the King of France.

The seat of war was now entirely changed. In May, 1674, Louis XIV. invaded Franche-Comté, and reconquered that Spanish province by the 1st of July. This time he intended to hold on to his conquests in that region.

With an inferior French force, Marshal Turenne drove the German imperial army from Alsace, and ravaged the Palatinate of the Rhine with fire and sword. At one time the Elector-Palatine beheld from his castle windows at Mannheim two cities and twenty-five villages on fire. He was so incensed at the sight that he challenged Marshal Turenne to fight a duel, but the marshal declined the challenge by his king's command. Later in the year 1674 the imperialists gained some advantages in Alsace, but Marshal Turenne again drove them across the Rhine and secured Alsace permanently for France. The English colonel, John Churchill—afterward so famous as the Duke of Marlborough—served under Marshal Turenne in this campaign.

In Flanders the French under the Prince of Condé fought a severe but indecisive battle with the Prince of Orange at Seneffe, August 11, 1674; but the campaign in that quarter closed to the general advantage of the allies.

In 1675 Louis XIV. again crossed the Rhine with a powerful army under Marshal Turenne; but that great French general was killed by a cannon-ball at Salzbach, July 27, 1675, while reconnoitering for a battle which was never to take place. After a bloody battle at Altenheim, the French army was driven back across the Rhine. Turenne's remains were honored with a magnificent funeral, and were buried in the Abbey of St. Denis amid those of the Kings of France.

The Prince of Condé succeeded to Marshal Turenne's command, as the only man in France capable of executing the dead hero's plans with credit. The Prince of Condé found that the German imperial army under Montecuculi had crossed the Rhine at Strasburg and were besieging Haguenau. He compelled them to raise the siege and arrested their progress, but he followed Turenne's tactics by refusing to be drawn into a general engagement. The imperialists under Montecuculi finally evacuated Alsace and retired into winter-quarters at Spires. The Prince of Condé and Montecuculi, enfeebled by age and disease, resigned their respective commands, and both retired to private life.

In 1676 the war was chiefly fought at sea; and the French fleet under Admiral Duquesne defeated the Dutch fleet in the Mediterranean in three naval battles off the coast of Sicily, in the second of which the heroic Dutch Admiral De Ruyter was mortally wounded. He had risen from the humble condition of a cabin boy to be one of the greatest admirals in Europe. The ungrateful and bigoted French king reproached the heroic Duquesne for being a Protestant. The blunt admiral replied: "When I fought for Your Majesty I never thought of what might be your religion." His son, being driven in exile for being a Huguenot, carried his father's bones with him, as he was resolved not to leave them in an ungrateful country.

In 1677 the French army under Marshal Luxemburg laid siege to Valenciennes, and the town was speedily taken through the skillful operations of the great engineer Vauban. The towns of Cambray and St. Omer were soon afterward taken also; and Marshal Luxemburg defeated Prince William of Orange, who was marching to the relief of St. Omer, at Cassel, April 11, 1677. On the Rhine during the same year the French under Marshal de Créquy defeated the German imperial troops under the Duke of Lor-

raine at Kochersberg, near Strasburg, and took the city of Freiburg, November 16, 1677.

Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, was the consistent, life-long opponent of Louis XIV.; and their relative positions in the European States-System were almost the same as those of Queen Elizabeth of England and King Philip II. of Spain a century before. The English Parliament was ardently in favor of the Prince of Orange; but King Charles II. had just sold himself afresh to the King of France for a pension of two hundred thousand livres, and promised not to enter into any alliance without that king's consent. Nevertheless the King of England was forced by the voice of his Parliament and people to declare war against France, and to confirm his alliance with Holland by the marriage of his niece Mary, daughter of his brother James, Duke of York, with William of Orange. This marriage took place October 23, 1677, William having gone to England to secure the alliance of that country; and an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between England and Holland in December of the same year, 1677.

England and Holland agreed to force Louis XIV. to accept terms of peace. While the negotiations which had been going on at Nimeguen, in Holland, since 1675, were still in progress, the French king seized the cities of Ghent and Ypres, thus gaining the power to dictate his own terms. At the same time the Prince of Orange obtained conclusive evidence that King Charles II. of England was still in secret alliance with the King of France. Thereupon the Dutch envoys resolved to accept the terms of peace offered by Louis XIV. and to conclude a separate treaty with him regardless of their allies.

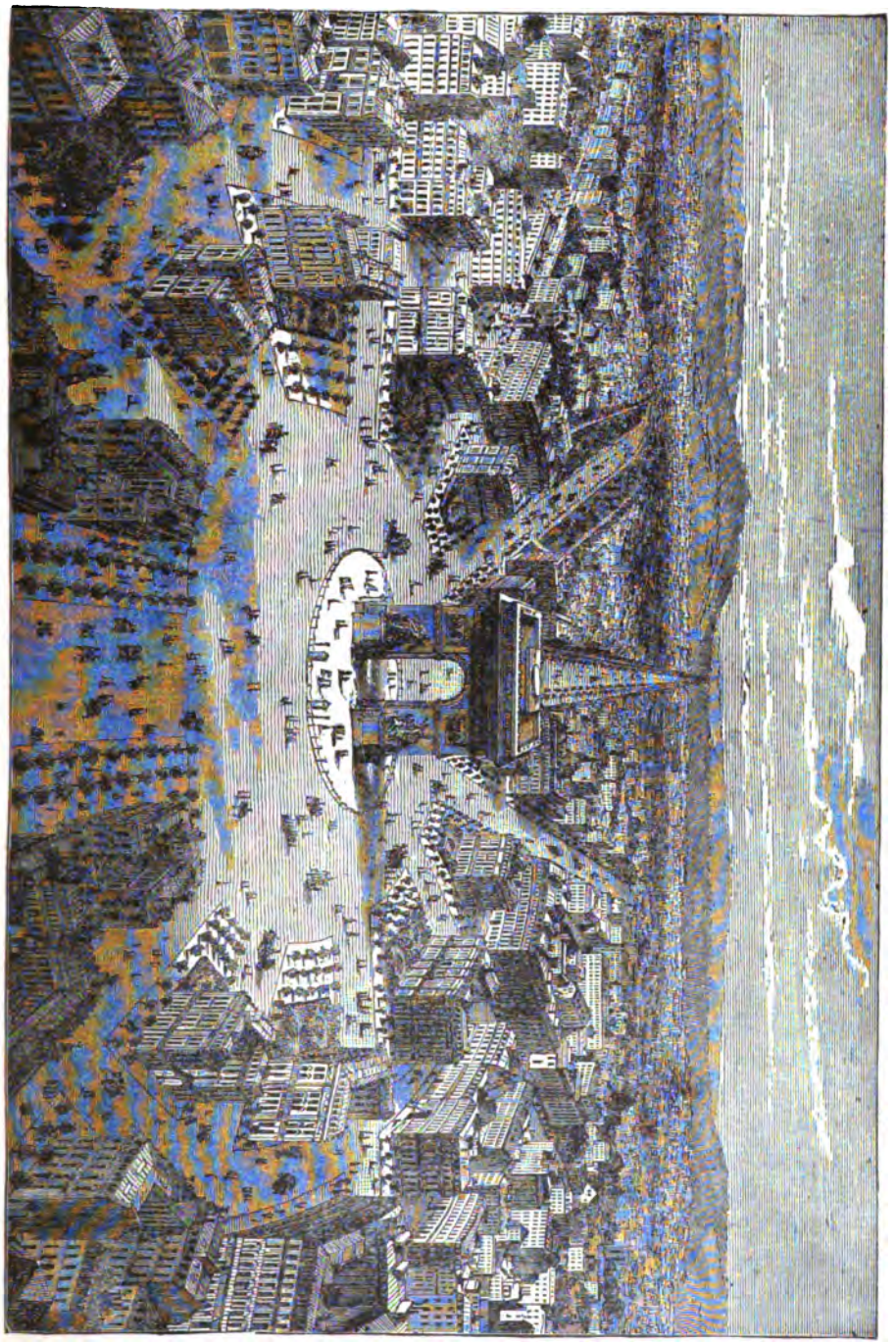
Accordingly the Peace of Nimeguen was concluded between France and Holland, August 14, 1678; France retaining the Dutch settlements in Senegal in Africa, and Guiana in South America, which had been conquered by her arms during the war. Spain signed the treaty September 17, 1678; ceding to France the province of Franche-Comté and that part of Flanders afterward known as French Flanders, containing eleven towns, among which were the four fortresses of Valenciennes, Cambray, Ypres and St. Omer; so that Spain was the chief loser by the war. The Emperor Leopold I. signed the treaty February 5, 1679, thus restoring peace between France and the German Empire, and finally ending this bloody war.

Louis XIV. offered to restore Lorraine to its duke only on condition of granting to the French king four military roads, each half a league wide, from France into Germany; but the duke chose voluntary exile for life from his hereditary estates in preference to such humiliating terms.

The Peace of Nimeguen was the culminating point of the power and glory of Louis XIV. The citizens of Paris solemnly conferred upon him the title of *the Great*, and erected the triumphal arches of the Porte St. Martin and the Porte St. Denis in his honor. He was the most powerful monarch in Europe; and he was very much elated by his triumphs, imagining that they were due to his merits. He considered himself the master of Europe as well as of France.

In September, 1681, Louis XIV. seized the imperial free city of Strasburg and annexed it to the French crown; and the engineering skill of Vauban soon made it an impregnable fortress. So important was this acquisition considered as a bulwark of France on her eastern frontier that a medal was struck to commemorate the completion of the work, bearing the inscription "Clausa Germanis Gallia." Strasburg remained in the possession of France until 1870, when it was reconquered by Germany.

Encouraged by his success, Louis XIV. continued his aggressions upon Germany and also upon Spain. Twenty other towns were wrested from the neighboring German princes; and regular *Courts of Reunion* were instituted in France to ascertain what territories had previously been dependent upon the annexed dominions. The French king's aggressions excited the most intense indig-



ARC DE TRIOMPHE.

nation in Germany, which was increased by his intrigues to secure a promise of the imperial crown at the next election.

Under the influence of Prince William of Orange, Holland, Sweden, Spain and the German Empire jointly protested against the siege of Luxemburg by the French army, and insisted upon a faithful execution of the Treaties of Westphalia and Nimeguen. This powerful coalition had the effect of inducing Louis XIV. to desist from his aggressions, and he found a pretext for his apparent moderation in the siege of Vienna by the Turks in 1683. He declared that he would not pursue his personal designs so long as Christendom was menaced by the forces of Islam, but he secretly encouraged the Sultan in his attacks on the territories of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

The least insult offered to French ambassadors, or neglect of etiquette, was certain to bring down signal vengeance upon the party so offending. In 1682 and 1683 a French fleet bombarded Algiers—then a new method of warfare—and forced the pirates to beg for mercy and to liberate their French and other Christian captives. In 1684 Genoa was also bombarded by the French navy for refusing to permit Louis XIV. to establish a depot within its territory.

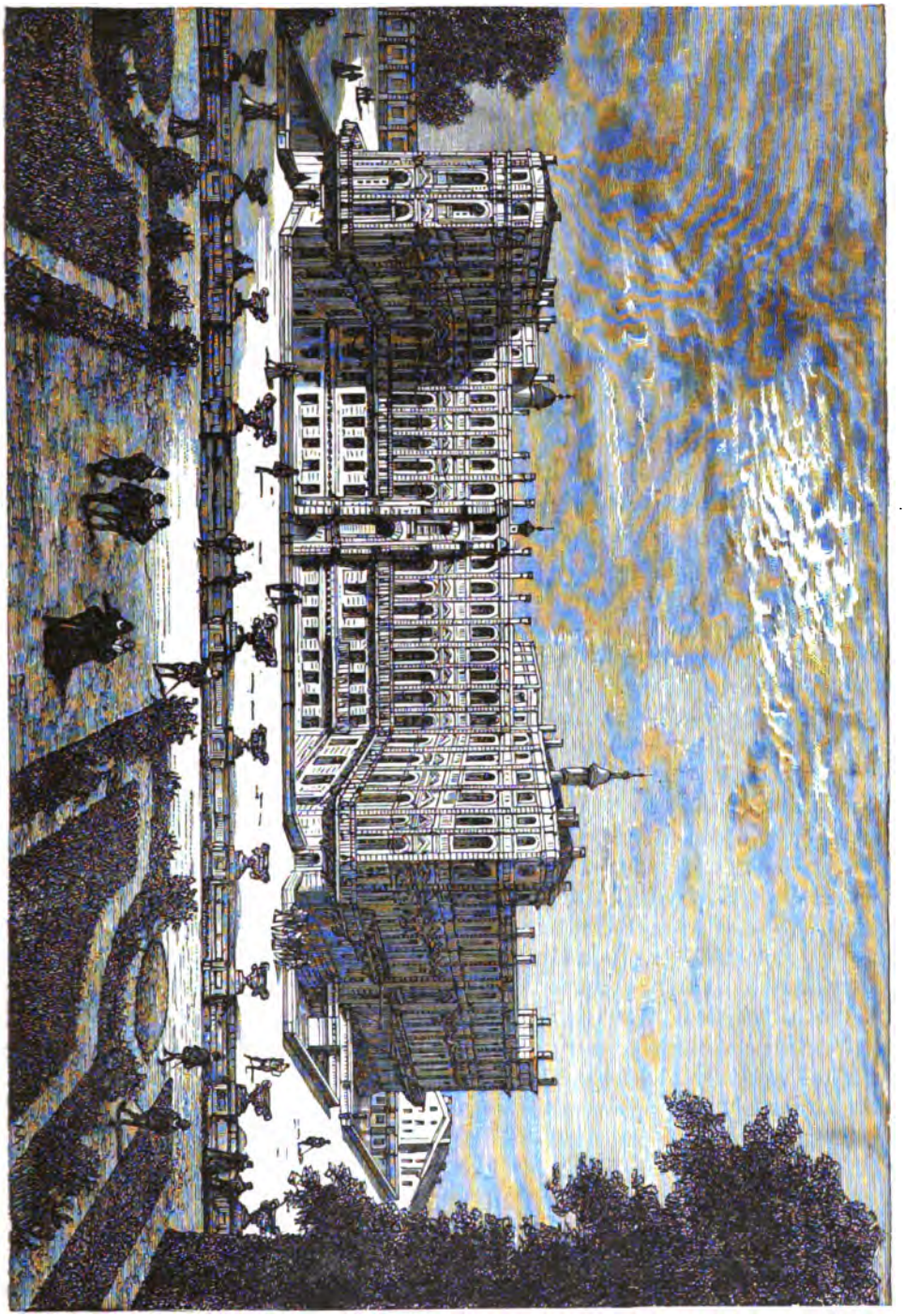
After the retreat of the Turks from Vienna in 1683, Louis XIV. marched his troops into the Spanish Netherlands and seized Courtray and Dixmude. In the spring and summer of 1684 the French army took Oudenarde and Luxemburg, dismantled Treves, and menaced Mons and Brussels. On August 15, 1684, France and Holland concluded a truce for twenty years, and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and King Charles II. of Spain acceded to this truce in the course of a few weeks. By this truce Louis XIV. was permitted to retain the free city of Strasburg, the province of Luxemburg, and all the towns which he had seized before August, 1681, but was forbidden to advance any additional claim upon the territories of the German Empire.

This was merely a temporary settlement, as the powers which the French king had despoiled of their territories were thoroughly resolved to make another effort to crush him. Though he was at the zenith of his power and greatness, he had incurred the enmity of all Europe, and had laid the foundation for the numberless troubles and mortifications which clouded his later years.

During the earlier years of his reign Louis XIV. had abandoned himself to the unrestrained indulgence of his licentious passions. He openly insulted his queen by retaining mistress after mistress at his court, and bestowing upon these dissolute women his affections for the time. His first mistress was the beautiful and unfortunate Louise de la Vallière, who bore him two children, after which she retired to a convent, heart-broken and penitent, in 1674. The king's next mistress was the Marchioness de Montespan, who held her place in the king's affections for many years, bearing him eight children, all of whom he legitimated.

Madame de Montespan selected Françoise D'Aubigné, the widow of the comic poet Scarron, as governess for her children. Françoise D'Aubigné was handsome and highly accomplished, attractive in manner, and endowed with great tact. Louis XIV. frequently saw her while she was in charge of his children, and she acquired over him an influence which she retained during the rest of his life. She afterward became Madame de Maintenon, and acted a conspicuous part in the latter part of this king's reign, as we shall presently see. She had many good qualities, but was a relentless bigot in religious matters, and this quality made her the evil genius of France.

Madame de Maintenon professed to be shocked by the king's evil ways, and proceeded to reform him. Louis XIV. was as superstitious as he was licentious, and as cruel as he was superstitious. Madame de Maintenon made use of these traits in the king's character to persuade him that the best atonement he could make for his evil life was to destroy heresy in his kingdom.



PALACE OF ST. GERMAINS.

At this time France contained about a million Huguenots, who had become wealthy and prosperous under the wise protection of the Edict of Nantes. They were sober, earnest and faithful, and had almost monopolized the productive industry of France. Their silks, paper, velvet, and other manufactured articles were the boast of the kingdom; and their efforts seemed about to make France the leading manufacturing country of the world. They were skillful farmers and vine-dressers, and wherever the land showed signs of the most skillful culture the owner was certain to be a Huguenot.

The Huguenots were as celebrated for their integrity as for their industry. A Huguenot's word was as good as his bond, and to be "honest as a Huguenot" became a proverb. This characteristic of integrity —an essential in a merchant who deals with foreigners whom he never sees—was so conspicuous in the business transactions of the Huguenots that they got the foreign trade of France almost exclusively into their hands. The English and the Dutch were always more willing to begin a correspondence with the Huguenot than with the Roman Catholic merchants. Thus the foreign business of France came almost wholly into the hands of Huguenot merchants at Bordeaux, at Rouen, at Caen, at Metz, at Nismes, and at the other great centers of commerce in France. Colbert had fostered the industries of the Huguenots, and had encouraged them to prosecute those industries in every possible quarter.

The Jesuits and the Roman Catholic Church had always regarded the tolerance shown to the Huguenots with great disfavor, and the Jesuits had succeeded to some extent in renewing the persecutions of the sixteenth century. The Huguenots had been treated with great rigor for twenty years, and the king had been induced to look upon them with open hostility, in spite of their great usefulness to the state. The Jesuits now made use of the king's infatuation for Madame de Maintenon, and obtained her aid by offering to favor the scheme upon which her heart had been set.

Maria Theresa, the Spanish wife of Louis XIV., died in 1683; and Madame de Maintenon resolved to marry the king. She carefully got him under her influence, and accordingly proceeded to persuade him that by extirpating heresy in his kingdom he could render adequate satisfaction to heaven for his past sins. The ill health of her royal paramour materially aided her, and the king during his fits of illness was anxious to quiet the remorse of conscience from which he suffered because of the past sins of his dissolute life. Penance must be performed, but not by himself. Says Sismondi: "Those who boasted of having converted him had never represented to him more than two duties—that of renouncing his incontinence, and that of extirpating heresy in his dominions."

The king's confessor, the Jesuit Père la Chaise, well seconded Madame de Maintenon's efforts with the king. Under their influence, Louis XIV. inflicted upon his Huguenot subjects all the horrors that bigotry could devise or that a fiendish cruelty could execute. In the year of Colbert's death, 1683, the military executions commenced. Life was rendered intolerable to the Huguenots. Every avocation was closed against them, and they were given the alternative of abjuring their religion or starving. Their churches were closed or destroyed. Their pastors were forbidden to preach. Entire congregations of Huguenots were massacred by the royal dragoons. Cruelty had full sway from Grenoble to Bordeaux. In the Viverais and the Cevennes the unfortunate Protestants were put to the sword.

It was generally understood that a Huguenot was outside the protection of the laws, and that any one was at perfect liberty to maltreat him at pleasure. Children were torn from their parents that they might be educated in the Roman Catholic faith. The fiercest and most brutal of the royal soldiery were let loose upon the defenseless Huguenot communities. The horrors of the *Dragonnades*, as these persecutions were called, are indescribable. Those who re-

fused to abjure Protestantism were put to death or imprisoned. Many yielded and were "converted." In September, 1685, Louvois, the Minister of War, wrote to King Louis XIV.: "Sixty thousand conversions have been made in the district of Bordeaux, and twenty thousand in that of Montauban. So rapid is the progress that before the end of the month ten thousand Protestants will not be left in the district of Bordeaux, where there were one hundred and fifty thousand on the fifteenth of last month."

Says Smiles: "The farce of Louis's conversion went on. In August, 1684, Madame de Maintenon wrote thus, 'The king is prepared to do everything that shall be judged useful for the welfare of religion. This undertaking will cover him with glory before God and man.' The Dragonnades were then in full career throughout the southern provinces, and a long wail of anguish was rising from the persecuted all over France. In 1685 the king's sufferings increased, and his conversion became imminent. His miserable body was beginning to decay, but he was willing to make a sacrifice to God of what the devil had left of it."

The Jesuits now made an agreement with Madame de Maintenon to advise King Louis XIV. to marry her on condition that she should induce him to revoke the Edict of Nantes. The infamous bargain was carried out. Père la Chaise counseled a secret marriage, and the ceremony was performed at Versailles by the Archbishop of Paris in the presence of the confessor and two other witnesses. As the marriage was never acknowledged, Madame de Maintenon's position at court remained anomalous and equivocal; but she exercised a supreme influence over her royal husband, and immediately after her marriage she induced him to revoke the Edict of Nantes.

The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes occurred October 17, 1685, thus depriving the Huguenots of all the privileges which Henry VI. and Louis XIII. had granted them. The exercise of the Protestant religion was absolutely prohibited throughout France, except in Alsace. The Huguenot churches were ordered to be destroyed, and their pastors were commanded to leave the kingdom within fifteen days. The Huguenots themselves were forbidden to leave France on penalty of confiscation of their property and penal servitude in the galleys. They were required to embrace the Roman Catholic religion and to have their children educated in that faith.

The Roman Catholic world greeted the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes with rejoicings, but the cruel measure inflicted a death-blow upon the prosperity of France. The fierce French soldiery and thousands of foreign mercenaries were let loose upon the Huguenots throughout France, and the most shocking atrocities were perpetrated. These brutal dragoons invaded every Huguenot dwelling, from the herdsman's hut to the noble's castle, and their occupants were subjected to the greatest outrages. Men and women were murdered at their own firesides. Little children were torn from the arms of their parents and butchered in their presence. Wives and maidens were outraged amid the ruins of their own homes.

The Huguenots were forbidden to bury their dead, or to comfort their dying. The bodies of those who died without the last offices of the Roman Catholic Church were removed from their dwellings by the public hangman, and cast into the common sewer. Those who refused the viaticum when sick were punished, in case of recovery, with the galleys, or imprisonment for life, and the confiscation of all their property.

So severe was the persecution that hundreds and thousands of Huguenots fled from France, in spite of the cruel laws against emigration. Thousands who attempted to escape were shot down by the soldiers, and thousands of others were captured and sent to the galleys. The purest and gentlest men were sent there and chained beside the vilest criminals. Each galley had a Jesuit chaplain, who constantly offered pardon to each captive Huguenot if he would renounce the Protestant religion for the Roman Catholic faith. Notwith-

standing the sufferings of the captives, most of them remained true to their religious convictions.

Altogether about two hundred thousand Huguenots fled from their native land, and many thousands were massacred in the Dragonnades. Among the exiles were some of the noblest names of France. Marshal Schomberg, one of the talented commanders of Louis XIV., escaped into Holland and entered the service of Prince William of Orange. Among the exiles were many distinguished literary men; such as Basnage, Bayle, Jurieu, Lenfant, Beausobre, Saurin, Rapin and others. Most of the refuges belonged to the industrial, commercial and manufacturing classes.

This Huguenot exodus well-nigh destroyed the industry of France. Lyons, Tours and Nantes were ruined. Lyons did not recover its former prosperity for a century. Nantes has not yet recovered from the losses which the bigotry of Louis XIV. thus inflicted upon it. This bigotry was a severer blow to the prosperity of his kingdom than all the costly wars which his ambition had kindled.

The industry which France had thus lost was transplanted to Protestant countries; and thus England, Holland, Germany, Switzerland, and even the English colonies in North America, were enriched by the skill and labor of these Huguenot exiles. They established new branches of manufacture in those countries, and these have grown steadily until the present time. Thus those countries gained what France had lost, and that which is the most valuable source of wealth that any country can possess—an enlightened, industrious and skillful class of citizens.

Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, distinguished himself by his liberality to the twenty thousand Huguenot refugees who settled in his dominions. He provided them with land, with building materials, and with capital for their manufactures; and their industry and diligence soon transformed the waste lands about Berlin into a well cultivated garden.

The cruelties inflicted upon the Huguenots by their bigoted king aroused the most inveterate hatred of Louis XIV. in all Protestant Europe; and his great opponent, Prince William of Orange, soon perceived the blunder which the "Grand Monarque" had committed, and took full advantage of it. The position of William, who was universally considered the champion of the Protestant cause, as well as the implacable foe of Louis XIV., was vastly improved.

Through William's exertions the powerful *League of Augsburg* was formed in July, 1686, uniting the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, King Charles II. of Spain, King Charles XI. of Sweden, and the leading German princes, such as the Elector-Palatine and the Electors of Bavaria and Saxony, against the King of France. Holland did not immediately join the league, as William's interests did not demand that the illustrious Stadtholder should break with Louis XIV. just then. He was secretly preparing to drive his father-in-law, King James II., from the throne of England. He skillfully concealed his designs from the King of France until it was too late for that monarch to oppose them.

The affairs of Cologne and the Palatinate soon furnished a pretext for hostilities. By means of French gold a partisan of Louis XIV. was elected Archbishop-Elector of Cologne, while Pope Innocent XI. and the League of Augsburg supported a Bavarian prince as a candidate for the office. The Duke of Orleans, the French king's brother, had married the sister of the last Elector-Palatine belonging to the House of Simmern. At her marriage this new Duchess of Orleans renounced all feudal rights in the Palatinate, but retained her hereditary claim to the movable property or allodial possessions of her family.

Louis XIV. now claimed all the artillery of the fortresses of the Palatinate as "movables," and his lawyers interpreted the allodial tenure so as to make it include almost the whole of the Palatinate. The new Elector-Palatine, Philip William of Neuburg, appealed to the Emperor Leopold I.:

and the alarm which the arrogant assumptions of the King of France excited gave a new importance to the League of Augsburg.

The War of the League of Augsburg commenced in September, 1688, when Louis XIV. hurled his forces against Germany. A French army of eighty thousand men under the command of the Dauphin and Marshals Duras and Vauban invaded the Palatinate of the Rhine, took Philipsburg after a month's siege, and captured Mannheim shortly afterward. A French division under the Marquis de Boufflers occupied the whole of the Palatinate of the Rhine west of that river; and another French detachment under Marshal d'Humières seized Dinant, in the bishopric of Liege.

Prince William of Orange took advantage of the French movement against Germany by prosecuting his designs against King James II. of England, who had become thoroughly estranged from his subjects by his arbitrary and illegal efforts to make Roman Catholicism the state religion of England. The English nobility, gentry, clergy and people turned their eyes toward the Prince of Orange, who, as we have seen, was invited to come to England to defend liberty and Protestantism, and with whom many of the most prominent men in England had been negotiating for some time.

Louis XIV. in great anger warned the Prince of Orange that any attempt which he made against James II. would involve him in a war with France; but the League of Augsburg kept the French king so closely occupied that he was unable to interfere with William's movements against the King of England; and the Prince of Orange embarked unmolested in the expedition with which he landed in England, thus giving the signal for the Glorious Revolution of 1688, which hurled the usurping tyrant James II. from the English throne, and which made William and his wife Mary joint sovereigns of England. The deposed James II. and his queen and infant son found refuge in France, where they were generously received and maintained by Louis XIV.

So altered were the relations of European powers that such Catholic sovereigns as Pope Innocent XI., the Emperor Leopold I. and King Charles II. of Spain united in congratulating the Protestant Prince William of Orange on his accession to the thrones of England, Scotland and Ireland; and this event by turning England, the former ally of Louis XIV., into an enemy, imposed a serious check upon the French king's extravagant ambition which all Europe alike dreaded.

As Louis XIV. was unable to occupy the whole of the Palatinate of the Rhine, he hearkened to the advise of his brutal Minister of War, Louvois, and commanded his generals to ravage that beautiful district with fire and sword; and the Rhenish Palatinate accordingly suffered a desolation far more terrible than in the preceding war. More than forty cities and hundreds of flourishing villages were reduced to ashes, because the French could not garrison these towns. The important cities of Mannheim, Heidelberg, Spires, Worms, Frankenthal, Oppenheim and Bingen were thus burned; and the beautiful country became a blackened desert, as the farms, orchards and vineyards were likewise laid utterly waste.

Such of the unfortunate inhabitants as were able to emigrate took refuge in other countries; but over a hundred thousand peasantry wandered helpless amid the ruins of their dwellings, imploring the curse of Heaven upon the merciless French king who had been the cause of their sufferings. These cruelties aroused the most intense hatred of the French in the hearts of the German people—a hatred which has not yet died out.

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany now declared war against Louis XIV., denouncing him as the enemy of Christendom; and such was the effect of the cruelties of the French that a *Grand Alliance* was formed against the King of France, consisting of England and Holland under William of Orange, Charles II. of Spain, Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, and the

German princes who had formed the League of Augsburg. England, under the vigorous government of King William III., was the head of the Grand Alliance.

The generals on the side of France in this war were the Duke of Luxemburg, Marshal Catinat and the great engineer Vauban. The leading commanders of the forces of the allies were William III. of England and Holland, Prince Eugene of Savoy, the Earl of Marlborough and the Dutch engineer Cohorn. The Duke of Lorraine, the best general of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, died in 1690, and was succeeded in the command of the imperial armies by the Elector Maximilian Emanuel of Bavaria.

After the formation of the Grand Alliance the allies placed three armies in the field to oppose the French. The first of these armies, under the Prince of Waldeck, entered the Spanish Netherlands, and defeated the French under Marshal D'Humières at Walcourt and drove them back from the line of the Sambre. The second allied army, under the Duke of Lorraine, and the third, under the new Elector Frederick III. of Brandenburg, at once marched to the Rhine and took Mayence and Bonn; after which they retired into winter-quarters in the Palatinate, which still was able to furnish them subsistence in spite of the barbarous ravages to which it had been subjected by the French. In Italy the French under Marshal Catinat defeated the Duke of Savoy at Staffarda, August 18, 1690.

In order to weaken England by aiding James II. in his efforts to recover his lost throne, Louis XIV. sent James to Ireland with a French force in March, 1689; and in the summer of 1690 a French fleet of seventy-eight ships-of-the-line under Admiral Tourville attempted to make a descent upon England in the interest of James II., and defeated the English and Dutch fleet under Admiral Herbert, Earl of Torrington, off Beachy Head, on the southern coast of England, June 30, 1690. The Dutch sustained the brunt of this engagement with great bravery, but the English admiral is said to have held aloof because he was disloyal to King William III. and secretly in the interest of James II.

The allied fleet was obliged to retire and to seek the shelter of the Thames, and for some time there were fears in England of a French invasion; but these fears were dispelled by King William's victory over the fallen James II. in the decisive battle of the Boyne, in Ireland, July 1, 1690, the day after the naval battle off Beachy Head. James II. returned to France; and when Ireland was reduced to submission in 1691 the French forces evacuated the island, many of the Irish going with them and afterward doing good service to King Louis XIV.

Early in 1690 Louis XIV. appointed the Duke of Luxemburg to the command of the French army in the Spanish Netherlands, and this commander became famous as Marshal Luxembourg. He forced a passage of the Sambre in spite of the resistance of the Prince of Waldeck, and defeated that general in the great battle of Fleurus, June 30, 1690, the very day of the French naval victory over the Anglo-Dutch fleet off Beachy Head.

In the spring of 1691 the French army under King Louis XIV. in person captured Mons, one of the strongest fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands, after a siege of nine days. In the summer of the same year Louvois, the able but brutal French Minister of War, died; but none regretted his death, except King Louis XIV., who found himself at great loss to find one to fill his place.

In May, 1692, a French army of thirty thousand men, largely composed of British exiles, was assembled at various points on the coast of Normandy—at Havre, Cherbourg and Cape La Hogue—to invade England and replace James II. on the throne of that kingdom. This force was commanded by James himself and Marshal Bellefonds, and was to be conveyed to the English coast by a French fleet of forty-four ships-of-the-line under Admiral Tourville.

No sooner was Admiral Tourville ready

to embark the troops designed to make a descent on the English coast than he was ordered by his king to attack the English and Dutch fleet of ninety-nine ships-of-the-line under Admiral Russell, which had entered the English Channel. Though Admiral Tourville did not expect victory against such odds, he obeyed his king's order without the slightest hesitation, and thus attacked the Anglo-Dutch fleet off the Isle of Wight, May 19, 1692, but was defeated and forced to retire at night.

Most of Tourville's shattered fleet sought shelter in the roadstead of Cape La Hogue, where they were stranded with their broadsides to the victorious foe. There they were attacked by the pursuing English ships of Admiral Russell's victorious fleet and totally destroyed, May 23, 1692. James II. viewed the engagement from the neighboring cliffs, and could not refrain from expressing his admiration of the valor of the English sailors, though the result of the battle put an end to his hopes of recovering his lost crown. Louis XIV. was so disheartened by the loss of his fleet that he abandoned the cause of James II., who passed the remainder of his life in pious seclusion at the palace of St. Germains, near Paris.

While his navy was thus destroyed, the King of France was more fortunate on land. On May 25, 1692, he in person laid siege to Namur, the strongest fortress in the Spanish Netherlands. Vauban's engineering skill was irresistible, and the fortress surrendered June 5, 1692. William III. of England and Holland had in the meantime marched to the relief of the beleaguered fortress, at the head of an allied army of seventy thousand men, but was prevented from crossing the Sambre by the French army under Marshal Luxembourg. William attacked Marshal Luxembourg at Steinkirk, in the province of Hainault, July 24, 1692, but was repulsed with heavy loss after an obstinate battle, and forced to retreat to Brussels.

King William III. began the campaign of 1693 by endeavoring to draw the French army under King Louis XIV. in person into an engagement near Louvain; but the French king declined to meet his great adversary in the open field, and abruptly left his army and sent a portion of it into Germany—an act which so weakened his military prestige that he did not afterward appear in person at the head of an army.

King William III. was defeated by the French army under Marshal Luxembourg in the bloody battle of Neerwinden, July 29, 1693, thus leaving the French in the ascendency in the Spanish Netherlands; but William conducted his retreat with such skill that his antagonists said that he was more formidable in defeat than others in victory.

On October 4, 1693, the French army in Piedmont under Marshal Catinat defeated the Duke of Savoy in the battle of Marsaglia; and the French army in Spain under the Duke of Noailles captured Rosas in the province of Catalonia.

The French fleet under Admiral Tourville attacked and defeated an English fleet under Admiral Sir George Rooke in Lagos Bay, on the southern coast of Portugal, June 27, 1693, thus capturing four English men-of-war and forty of the richly-laden English and Dutch merchantmen which the English fleet was convoying toward Smyrna. English commerce suffered greatly from the depredations of French privateers. In South America the French squadron under Commodore de Pointis surprised the rich city of Carthagena, inflicting a loss of thirty millions upon the Spaniards; while another French squadron under Duguay-Trouin captured a Dutch fleet on its way from Bilbao.

France had now been engaged for seven years in a constant and ruinous war with the Grand Alliance; and Louis XIV. was anxious for peace, being conscious of the fact that his resources were completely exhausted. "The people were perishing to the sound of *Te Deums*." In the language of Fenelon, Louis XIV. "had made France a vast hospital." The French finances had greatly fallen into disorder since Colbert's death, in 1683. The French peasantry had

been largely drafted into the armies, and the lands were left uncultivated. Taxes upon industry had eaten up the very sources of revenue, while the kingdom was burdened with an enormous debt.

Louis XIV. had a still stronger motive for peace in his views concerning the Spanish succession, as the childless Charles II. of Spain was evidently near the end of his life. For a long time Louis XIV. had an understanding with the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, who, like himself, was a first cousin and a brother-in-law of the Spanish king. As the French king could not realize his hope respecting a partition of the Spanish dominions if the death of Charles II. should occur while all Europe was in arms against France, Louis XIV. sought the mediation of Pope Innocent XII. and of Kings Christian V. of Denmark and Charles XI. of Sweden; offering ample concessions for the sake of peace. William III. of England and Holland and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany were well aware of the exhaustion of their great antagonist, and opposed and neutralized all his efforts, so that the war went on four years longer. French armies renewed their devastations in the Rhineland, while French privateers continued preying upon English and Dutch commerce.

Marshal Luxembourg, the ablest of the French commanders in this war, died at Versailles, January 4, 1695, at the age of sixty-seven. He was succeeded by Marshal Villeroi, who began his military career by allowing King William III. to recapture the strong fortress of Namur, thus giving the allies the ascendency in the Spanish Netherlands and producing a marked improvement in their fortunes. As this was the first conquest wrested from Louis XIV., the allies felt greatly encouraged.

Louis XIV. still became more anxious for peace, and proceeded to break up the Grand Alliance. By restoring Pignerol, in Piedmont, and Nice and the other possessions which the French had wrested from the House of Savoy, the French king succeeded in inducing Victor Amadeus II. Duke of Savoy, to desert the Grand Alliance and to sign a treaty of peace and alliance with France, May 30, 1696.

Sweden offered her mediation for a peace. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany was most averse to a treaty with the King of France, but when England and Holland intimated that they would conclude a separate treaty with Louis XIV. the Emperor finally consented to negotiate. The plenipotentiaries of all the belligerent powers met at the little village of Ryswick, in Holland, in May, 1697. After four months of negotiation, the Peace of Ryswick was concluded between France, England, Holland and Spain, September 30, 1697. Louis XIV. bound himself to acknowledge William III. as the rightful King of England, Scotland and Ireland, and to render no further assistance to the exiled James II. Louis XIV. also restored to Spain the French conquests in the Spanish province of Catalonia, and also some of the French acquisitions in the Spanish Netherlands, such as the duchy of Luxemburg and the towns of Charleroi, Mons, Ath and Cambray.

The next month, October, 1697, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany acceded to the Peace of Ryswick by reluctantly signing a treaty with France, by which he recovered all the imperial territory which Louis XIV. had wrested from him since the Peace of Nimeguen, in 1678, except the city of Strasburg, which France still retained. Duke Leopold of Lorraine was restored to his parental inheritance; and the Duchess of Orleans renounced all her claims to the Palatinate upon the payment of a sum of money from the new Elector-Palatine; while Joseph Clement of Bavaria was confirmed in the dignity of Archbishop-Elector of Cologne.

The terms of the Peace of Ryswick were humiliating to Louis XIV.; but the exhausted condition of his kingdom, and his anxiety to have his hands free upon the approaching vacancy of the Spanish throne, allowed him no other alternative than to accept them. This treaty released England forever from French influence and made her the chief counterpoise to France in the Eu-

ropean States-System. The last war of Louis XIV. was that of the Spanish Succession in the early part of the eighteenth century, which involved the great powers of Central and Western Europe, and which will be described in the next chapter.

SECTION IV.—SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

SPAIN.

PHILIP III., who became King of Spain upon the death of his father Philip II., September 13, 1598, was an insignificant monarch. Spain had now entered fairly on her decline. The bigoted policy of Philip II. had robbed his kingdom of its power and glory, and had laid the foundations of its ruin. Still Spain was a great and formidable kingdom for some time longer, but she rapidly declined during the seventeenth century.

Philip III. continued his bigoted father's policy of ruin. In 1609 he issued an edict banishing the oppressed Moriscoes, or Christianized Moors, from Spain. As the export of gold from Spain was forbidden, the unfortunate Moriscoes were obliged to abandon most of their property, which was seized by the Spanish government. The exile of the Moriscoes was conducted with the greatest cruelty. More than one hundred and thirty thousand embarked for Africa, but ninety-five thousand of these perished of hunger and exhaustion on the way. One hundred thousand others sought refuge in France, but were permitted to remain in that country only on condition of embracing Roman Catholic Christianity, which they had just rejected in Spain. They refused to do so, and were ordered to leave France. While waiting for transportation so many died in the French ports and were thrown into the sea that the fish were supposed to be poisoned.

By this cruel act Philip III. had dealt a fatal blow to the prosperity of his own kingdom. Miles of fertile fields that had been rich in the olive and the vine lay waste for want of tillage; and Spain has not yet recovered from the ruinous effects of the banishment of the Moriscoes, which was to her what the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes was to France.

Philip III. died in March, 1621, and was succeeded as King of Spain by his son PHILIP IV., who was then only sixteen years old, and who was superior to his father in many respects. Under Philip IV. the decay of Spain's greatness went on very rapidly. We have already alluded to the part which Spain took in the Thirty Years' War in Germany. She gained nothing by that struggle, all her earlier advantages having been wrested from her during the progress of the war. While the war was in progress Spain was confronted with revolts in Catalonia, Portugal and Naples.

The home forces of Spain were for some time occupied by the revolt of the provinces of Biscay and Catalonia. The intolerable outrages committed by a Spanish army quartered in those provinces during the campaign of 1639–'40 against the French exasperated the inhabitants. Bands of half-savage mountaineers, who were on their way to Barcelona to hire themselves out for labor in the fields, caught the fury; and by a sudden impulse all Castilians or foreigners in the city were massacred. The Catalonian insurgents sent to all the European powers a statement of their grievances against the Spanish government, and by a formal treaty Louis XIII. engaged to provide a military force to aid the Catalans. A Spanish army of twenty thousand men was already on its march to the frontier of Catalonia, marking its route by fire and blood; and the rebels soon transferred their allegiance to France.

Spain suffered a more serious and per-

manent loss in the liberation of Portugal, in 1640. During its sixty years' union with Spain, Portugal had been oppressed, humiliated and impoverished by its Spanish conquerors. Portuguese commerce with the East and West Indies was crippled, the Portuguese navy was destroyed, and the Portuguese people were crushed with taxes which defrayed the cost of erecting unnecessary palaces for the Kings of Spain. When commanded to march against the revolted Catalans, the Portuguese nobles and officers resolved to follow the example of those rebels. The Spanish guards of Lisbon and the vice-queen's palace were cut down. The Duke of Braganza, a descendant of the former Kings of Portugal, was proclaimed King of Portugal with the title of John IV.; thus completing the revolution, A. D. 1640.

With the single exception of Ceuta, in North-western Africa, the Portugese colonies overpowered their Spanish garrisons; and the Portuguese *Cortes* which assembled at Lisbon in 1641 declared the right of every nation to renounce the rule of a tyrant, even if he were a legitimate sovereign, and not a usurper like the King of Spain. This was the origin of the dynasty which, in its royal and imperial branches, still occupies the thrones of Portugal and Brazil.

In 1647 Naples also revolted against Spain, the insurrection in that Italian dependency of the Spanish Hapsburgs being under the leadership of the fisherman Masaniello. Although Ferdinand the Catholic and the Emperor Charles V. had promised the Neapolitans that no taxes should be levied upon them without the consent of the Estates of Naples, the Spanish kings were accustomed to disregard their promises, as they looked upon their Italian possessions simply as an inexhaustible source of revenue. The Spanish viceroy of Naples neglected to summon the Neapolitan Estates, and levied taxes at his own pleasure. All the simplest necessaries of life were taxed heavily; and in 1647 an impost was levied upon fruit, the chief article of food that had hitherto escaped this burden. This caused the insurrection of the poor of Naples, who had already suffered severely from the oppressive taxes.

Under the leadership of the young Amalfi fisherman Masaniello, the insurgents of Naples obtained possession of the city of Naples, burned the custom-house, and forced the viceroy to take refuge in the Castle of St. Elmo. About the same time the inhabitants of Palermo rose in arms against the Spanish viceroy of Sicily. The viceroy of Naples succeeded in gaining over many of the rebels by promises which he never intended to fulfill, and caused their leader Masaniello to be assassinated, thus ending the revolt.

Another revolt broke out at Naples in August, 1647. The rebels compelled Don John of Austria, the illegitimate son of King Philip IV. of Spain, to recall his army after several days of street-fighting; but they appeared utterly helpless since the assassination of Masaniello, in whom they reposed the most implicit faith. They selected Gennaro Annesi for their leader, and by his advice they invited the Duke of Guise to place himself at their head and to assist them in founding a republic.

The Duke of Guise came promptly, as he expected to recover the possessions of the House of Anjou, from which he was descended; but the Neapolitans soon saw through his design and became discontented. The duke mortally offended Gennaro Annesi, who gratified his revenge by betraying the city to the Spaniards, thus ending the revolt. The Spaniards executed Gennaro Annesi and many others of the popular party, and crushed the spirit of the Neapolitan people by a series of barbarous cruelties. The revolt in Sicily was ended more easily. The Spanish viceroy disarmed the rebels by a liberal proclamation of amnesty, and then shot down many of them in the streets.

The revolt of Naples, and the great strain put upon the resources of Philip IV. by the Thirty Years' War, reduced him to the necessity of concluding the Peace of Münster with the Dutch Republic, in January, 1648; thus acknowledging that vigorous

young state as an independent power among the nations of the earth, and ceding to it the towns of Dutch Flanders and the Dutch conquests in the East Indies, in Africa and in the New World.

As we have seen, the Peace of Westphalia, October 24, 1648, which ended the Thirty Years' War, did not end hostilities between Spain and France, which continued eleven years longer, until ended by the Peace of the Pyrenees, November 7, 1659, by which Spain was obliged to cede to France the county of Roussillon, north of the Pyrenees, and the county of Artois, in the Spanish Netherlands. Spain retained the rest of the Spanish Netherlands, and also Franche-Comté, the Duchy of Milan, and the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily. By the Treaty of the Pyrenees, Spain surrendered the last vestige of supremacy which she had exercised in Europe since the reign of Philip II.; and she rapidly sunk into insignificance.

Philip IV. died in September, 1665, and was succeeded as King of Spain by his son CHARLES II., the child of a second marriage. Excepting the wars with Louis XIV. of France, the reign of Charles II. was uneventful. He was the last of the dynasty of the Spanish Hapsburgs, who had reigned over the Spanish dominions for almost two centuries, beginning with Charles I., the Emperor Charles V. of Germany, in 1516.

As Charles II. was childless, his death in 1700 gave rise to a contest for the Spanish dominions, which brought on a general European struggle known as the War of the Spanish Succession, A. D. 1702–1713, which placed the French House of Bourbon on the Spanish throne, in the person of Duke Philip of Anjou, who became PHILIP V. By the Peace of Utrecht, in 1713, Spain ceded the Spanish Netherlands, Milan, Naples and Sicily to the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany, the head of the Austrian House of Hapsburg and the competitor of Philip of Anjou for the Spanish throne; while Gibraltar and Minorca were ceded to England, and Spain and Portugal resumed their former boundaries.

PORTUGAL.

During the sixty years' subjection of Portugal to the Spanish crown the greatness of Portugal steadily declined. The Portuguese possessions in North-western Africa passed into the hands of Spain, and Ceuta was thus permanently lost to Portugal. The Dutch became formidable rivals of the Portuguese on the western coast of Africa, and deprived them of much of their commerce in that quarter. In the East Indies the Dutch also seized many of the Portuguese possessions and absorbed the Portuguese trade, thus giving the death-blow to the Portuguese supremacy in that part of the world, and placing the remaining Portuguese settlements in Southern and Eastern Asia in great peril. At the same time the English laid the foundations of their empire in India, which was destined eventually to overshadow both the Portuguese and Dutch dominions in that quarter.

During the same period the European enemies of Spain also attacked Brazil, which Portuguese dependency had also fallen into the hands of Spain. The Portuguese settlements in Brazil were repeatedly attacked and plundered by French, English and Dutch fleets. In 1612 the French seized Maranhao and founded the city of Sao Luiz do Maranhao, but in 1615 the Portuguese expelled the French from that town. In 1623 a Dutch fleet captured Bahia, but in 1625 the Dutch garrison in that town was forced to surrender to the Portuguese. In 1629 the Dutch captured Pernambuco; after which they rapidly extended their conquests in Brazil, so that by 1645 they had possession of all Brazil north of Pernambuco, except Para.

The Portuguese universally detested the Spaniards; and the Spanish rule was so oppressive that the popular discontent in Portugal steadily increased, until 1640, when the Portuguese rose in revolt and proclaimed the Duke of Braganza King of Portugal with the title of JOHN IV. France, England and Holland at once recognized the independence of Portugal under the House of Braganza, France and Holland being en-

gaged in hostilities with Spain during the progress of the Thirty Years' War. John IV. successfully resisted the efforts which Spain made during his entire reign to reconquer Portugal.

During the reign of John IV. the Portuguese gradually drove the Dutch from Brazil, and recovered that entire dependency by 1654. Brazil was erected into a principality, and the heir-apparent to the crown of Portugal was invested with the title of Prince of Brazil. In the meantime Brazil had prospered steadily, in spite of the struggles with the Dutch and the exactions of the home government. The prosperity of the province was based on agriculture.

King John IV. died in 1656, and was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his second son ALFONSO VI., whose elder brother had died some time before. In 1660 Holland concluded a treaty with Portugal renouncing all her claims to Brazil. In 1661 a treaty of alliance was concluded between Portugal and England; by which the Princess Catharine of Braganza, the daughter of King Alfonso VI., was married to King Charles II. of England; while Portugal ceded Tangier, in North-western Africa, and Bombay, in Hindoostan, to England as Catharine's dowry. This treaty was the beginning of intimate relations between Portugal and England which lasted a long time and had a marked effect upon the fortunes of Portugal.

King Alfonso VI. was so weak and contemptible a monarch that the Spaniards felt encouraged to prosecute hostilities against the Portuguese with increased vigor; but the Portuguese were victorious, the Spaniards being decisively defeated at Almexial in 1663 and at Villaviciosa in 1666. The battle of Villaviciosa virtually secured the independence of Portugal, though Spain still refused to acknowledge it.

The Portuguese had become so disgusted with Alfonso VI. that the Portuguese Cortes deprived him of his authority as an imbecile, in 1667, and made his brother Dom Pedro regent. A dispensation was obtained from Pope Clement IX. annulling Alfonso's marriage; and his divorced queen, Mary of Savoy, then married Dom Pedro. One of the first acts of the regency was the Peace of Lisbon with Spain, February 13, 1668, by which Spain treated with the Portuguese as a sovereign and independent nation, and a mutual restitution of all conquests during the war was made, with the exception of the city of Ceuta, in North-western Africa, which remained to Spain. The subjects of both nations recovered all property alienated or confiscated during the war. By the Peace of the Hague between Portugal and Holland, July 31, 1669, the Dutch were left in possession of all the conquests which they had made from the Portuguese in the East Indies.

King Alfonso VI. was closely confined until his death, in 1683, when the regent Dom Pedro ascended the throne of Portugal with the title of PEDRO II. In 1696 gold was discovered in Brazil, and diamonds were also found in that country about the same time. These discoveries vastly increased the wealth of Brazil, and poured a steady stream of wealth into the Portuguese treasury. In 1703 Portugal, by an offensive and defensive alliance with England, was drawn into the War of the Spanish Succession. During the war Pedro II. died, and was succeeded as King of Portugal by his son JOHN V., A. D. 1706, during whose reign Spain by treaty formally acknowledged the independence of Portugal, A. D. 1737.

The history of Portugal is thenceforth generally unimportant and uneventful. Though the country had recovered its independence, the restored Kingdom of Portugal lacked vigor, and has manifested the same tendency to decay that has characterized Spain since the reign of Philip II. Though Portugal had recovered its independence through the growing feebleness and decline of Spain, the restored kingdom was unable to recover more than half of its old colonial empire, most of its former possessions in the East Indies having come into the possession of the young and vigorous Dutch Republic. Only in Brazil was Portugal able to reëstablish her old dominion.

SECTION V.—THE NORTH AND EAST OF EUROPE.

DENMARK.

DURING the sixty years' reign of CHRISTIAN IV., A. D. 1588–1648, Denmark was prosperous, notwithstanding her disastrous wars. The Danish monarchy embraced all of Denmark and Norway, with the seven southern provinces of Sweden; while Iceland and Greenland were among its foreign possessions. In 1611 Christian IV. began a foolish and useless war with the King of Sweden; but this war was ended by the Peace of Siorod in 1613, through the mediation of England. The part which Christian IV. took in the Thirty Years' War as an ally of the German Protestants, which ended in his deteat, and which was closed by the Peace of Lübeck in 1629, has already been alluded to; as has also his disastrous war with Sweden in 1644, which was ended by the Peace of Brömsebro, in August, 1645.

Upon the death of Christian IV., in 1648, his son FREDERICK III. became King of Denmark and Norway. In 1657 Frederick III. became involved in a war with Charles X. of Sweden, which was ended by the Peace of Roskild in 1658. A second war with Charles X. of Sweden, begun in 1658, was ended by the Peace of Copenhagen in 1660. In 1660 Frederick III. accomplished a peaceful revolution by which he changed the constitution of Denmark, thus converting his kingdom from an elective and limited monarchy into an absolute and hereditary one. Thus the Danish nobility were deprived of their great privileges and revenues by the *Royal Law*, which conferred unlimited power upon the king. The nobles thus lost their former power and independent position, and were bound to the throne by titles and orders.

Frederick III. died in 1670, and was succeeded on the Danish throne by his son CHRISTIAN V., who engaged in a war with Charles XI. of Sweden in 1675, which was ended in 1679 through the intervention of Louis XIV. of France. Upon the death of Christian V., in 1699, his son FREDERICK IV. became King of Denmark and Norway. He reigned until his death in 1730.

SWEDEN.

CHARLES IX. of Sweden was engaged during part of his reign of twelve years, A. D. 1599–1611, in a war with his nephew and predecessor, King Sigismund III. of Poland, who still claimed the Swedish crown after his deposition by the Swedish Diet. A few months before his death, in 1611, Charles IX. became involved in a war with Christain IV. of Denmark. Among the causes of complaint of the two kings was one that each bore upon his shield three crowns symbolizing the three Scandinavian kingdoms.

Upon the death of Charles IX., in the fall of 1611, his son, the illustrious GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS—"the Lion of the North"—became King of Sweden at the age of sixteen. He chose for his Prime Minister the famous Axel Oxenstiern, a man of profound wisdom and good judgment, a model statesman and diplomatist, and the prime mover in Swedish affairs for a long series of year.

Gustavus Adolphus had served his apprenticeship in the art of war in the struggle with Christian IV. of Denmark, and he was destined to become not only one of the most famous of military heroes, but also the founder of a new system of warfare and army organization, which in the course of time superseded the closely serried ranks of the Swiss pikemen and the Spanish lancers.

Through the mediation of England, the war with Christian IV. of Denmark was ended in two years by the Peace of Siorod, in January, 1613; but a war with Russia had already begun. The male line of Rurik having become extinct, a party in Russia desired to place a brother of Gustavus Adolphus on the Russian throne. The

Swedes gained some advantages in this war, but the greater part of the Russian nation succeeded in maintaining the right of Michael Romanoff to the Russian crown. By the Peace of Stolbova, in 1617, Russia ceded considerable territory to Sweden, including the site of the present city of St. Petersburg.

In 1620 Gustavus Adolphus became involved in a war of nine years with his cousin, King Sigismund III. of Poland, caused by the latter's pretensions to the Swedish crown. This war was ended in 1629, by the six years' Truce of Altmark, through the mediation of France, whose illustrious Prime Minister, Cardinal Richelieu, was anxious to allow Gustavus Adolphus liberty to engage in the great Thirty Years' War in Germany. By this war with Poland, Sweden acquired Livonia and part of Prussia; but far more valuable were the discipline and experience which enabled Gustavus Adolphus to assume his place as the great leader of the Protestant hosts in the Thirty Years' War.

As we have seen, Gustavus Adolphus, upon leaving Sweden in 1630 to take part in the Thirty Years' War, placed the government of his kingdom in the hands of a Council of Regency presided over by his able Prime Minister, the Chancellor, Axel Oxenstiern; confiding his infant daughter Christina to this council. Upon her valiant father's death on the memorable field of Lutzen, in 1632, CHRISTINA was proclaimed Queen of Sweden; the government being administered by Oxenstiern, under whose guidance Sweden became the head of the Protestant league. The Thirty Years' War made Sweden the great military power of the North, and gave rise to the States-System in the Northern kingdoms of Europe.

During the young queen's minority the noble families of Sweden improved their opportunity to increase their privileges and property. Christina assumed the government in 1644; and during the first years of her reign she displayed a wisdom, a firmness and a manifold ability which surprised her venerable counselors, and thus proved herself a worthy daughter and successor of Gustavus Adolphus. She exhibited a masculine spirit and character in everything. Her influence in favor of peace was felt in the Treaty of Westphalia.

Christina surrounded herself with a brilliant court adorned with the society of artists and scholars from all Europe, whom she invited to Stockholm. Her extraordinary accomplishments won the admiration of the learned foreigners who thronged her court, among whom was the great French philosopher Descartes.

Unfortunately, Christina's powers of mind were not properly balanced and supported by steadiness of purpose. She wasted her revenues in fantastic entertainments, and bestowed the crown-lands on her favorites, who made use of her gifts to oppose the royal prerogatives in the next reign.

As the years advanced, Christina disappointed the expectations that had been formed of her in the early part of her reign. Her taste for art and her love for science found little encouragement in the Protestant North, and for that reason she never found herself at home in her kingdom. Thus becoming weary of the cares of state, and in order to indulge her artistic and scientific tastes she abdicated the throne of Sweden in 1654, after a reign of ten years and in the twenty-eighth year of her age, naming her cousin Charles Gustavus of Pfalz-Zweibrücken as her successor, and reserving an annuity for herself.

Christina then left her native Sweden, and sought freedom in a milder climate. At Innsbruck she abjured her father's religion and was solemnly admitted into the Roman Catholic Church. She passed the remaining thirty-five years of her life in wandering over Europe; traveling through the Netherlands, France and Italy, and twice revisiting Sweden; dividing her time between learning and vice; and finally establishing her permanent residence in that renowned city filled with all the splendor of art—Rome—where she ended her dissolute life in 1689 at the age of sixty-three.

CHARLES X., the cousin and successor of

Christina, upon his accession in 1654, found Sweden still exhausted by her efforts in the Thirty Years' War, as well as by Christina's extravagant expenditures. Nevertheless, he was ambitious of building up a great Scandinavian empire in the North of Europe under the supremacy of Sweden, and thus making himself the absolute master of the North. The weakness of the neighboring kingdoms of Denmark and Poland seemed to flatter the hopes of the ambitious King of Sweden.

As John Casimir, King of Poland, claimed the Swedish crown, the Swedish monarch formed an alliance with the Czar Alexis of Russia, the second of the Romanoffs, who found a pretext for war with Poland in a revolt of the Cossacks of the Ukraine against the Polish kingdom, to which they had been subject since 1386. In 1654 the Czar Alexis besieged and took Smolensk, while other Russian armies occupied Lithuania and the Ukraine; and in 1655 two Swedish armies invaded Poland, while the Swedish fleet blockaded the free city of Dantzic.

In August, 1655, King Charles X. of Sweden defeated King John Casimir of Poland in the decisive battle of Sobota, after which Warsaw surrendered to the victorious Swedish king. The Polish army and most of the Polish nobility took oaths of allegiance to the King of Sweden. Cracow also opened its gates to the Swedish monarch; and the province of Lithuania, occupied chiefly by his Russian allies, acknowledged him as its sovereign. A party in the Polish Diet offered the crown of Poland to the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, but a majority of the Polish nation favored Charles X.

In this emergency the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg, the ally of John Casimir of Poland, led an army into West Prussia to protect that duchy against the Swedes; but he was defeated by Charles X. of Sweden, and was thus forced to acknowledge himself a vassal of Sweden instead of Poland. In subsequent treaties the Swedish king's embarrassments enabled the Great Elector to secure the sovereignty of the duchy of East Prussia, thus laying the foundation of the subsequent powerful Kingdom of Prussia.

In the meantime King John Casimir of Poland mustered an army of Poles and Tartars to recover Warsaw from the Swedes, and recaptured that city June 21, 1656; but after a three days' battle in its vicinity the next month, July, 1656, in which Charles X. of Sweden and his new ally, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, were victorious, Warsaw again surrendered to the Swedish monarch.

At this juncture Poland was saved from destruction by the lack of harmony among her enemies; as the Czar Alexis of Russia had now grown jealous of the Swedes, and invaded the Swedish province of Livonia with one hundred thousand men, while he sent another army to ravage the Swedish provinces of Ingria, Carelia and Finland, on the east side of the Baltic. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and King Frederick III. of Denmark also became alarmed and offended by the progress of Charles X. of Sweden, and became the allies of John Casimir of Poland in opposing the "Pyrrhus of the North," A. D. 1657.

Oliver Cromwell, the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, favored Sweden, though he offered her no active aid; but George Ragotzky, Prince of Transylvania, entered into a close offensive alliance with the King of Sweden, in the hope of obtaining the crown of Poland, or at least the Polish provinces of Red Russia, Podolia, Volhynia, and a large territory in the South of the Polish kingdom. The Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg retired from the Swedish army with his contingent force; and by the Peace of Welau with Poland, September 19, 1657, he was guaranteed his title of Sovereign Duke of Prussia and the possession of that duchy as an independent state.

As the Czar Alexis of Russia, King John Casimir of Poland, King Frederick III. of Denmark, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg, and the Dutch Republic

united in 1657 in an alliance to compel King Charles X. of Sweden to relinquish his conquests, the Swedish king at once retired from Poland and made a sudden dash at Denmark, overrunning the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein without opposition, and sending a detachment under General Wrangel to occupy the duchy of Bremen.

The King of Sweden took Frederiksödde by siege, October 24, 1657; and, as soon as a winter of unusual severity, even for those Northern regions, had covered the Baltic with ice, he commenced a remarkable series of maneuvers among the islands of the Sound by crossing the two Belts on the ice with his cavalry and artillery, capturing Fünen, Langeland, Laaland and Falster, and finally passing over into the island of Zealand and placing Copenhagen at his mercy. The Danish capital was poorly fortified and utterly taken by surprise.

The threatened intervention of the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg and of the Dutch Republic in favor of Denmark, and the mediation of France and England, led to the Peace of Roskild, in March, 1658, by which Denmark ceded some of her most important islands to Sweden, and abandoned all her offensive alliances.

The ambition of Charles X. of Sweden had grown by indulgence; and he now not only contemplated the founding of a great Scandinavian empire in the North of Europe, but also of marching southward into Italy with an overwhelming host, and, like Alaric the Goth more than twelve centuries before, establishing a Gothic kingdom in that sunny land of Southern Europe.

Early in August, 1658, Charles X. of Sweden renewed the war against King Frederick III. of Denmark, on the pretext that the Danish monarch had not faithfully executed all the conditions of the Treaty of Roskild. The Swedish king took Kronenborg, September 5, 1658, after a siege which gave the Danes time to strengthen the fortifications of Copenhagen, so that it would be enabled to hold out until the arrival of a Dutch fleet which was sent to aid the Danes in the defense of their capital.

The Swedes then turned the siege of Copenhagen into a blockade, but they were themselves besieged before the Danish capital by the Dutch and Danish fleets which guarded the sea; while the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg also came to the relief of Denmark with a combined army of Poles, Austrians and his own subjects, driving the Swedes from the peninsula of Jutland and capturing most of the towns in Swedish Pomerania. Thorn surrendered to the Poles in December, 1658, after a siege of eighteen months; and Elbing and Marienburg were the only towns in Prussia that still remained in possession of the Swedes.

England, France and Holland, whose commerce was embarrassed by the closing of the Baltic ports, now intervened to put a stop to the war; but the main cause of disturbance was removed by the sudden death of Charles X. of Sweden, in February, 1660. His son and successor, CHARLES XI., was a child of four years. The queen-regent of Sweden, with her Council of State, at once commenced negotiations with the hostile powers, and concluded the Peace of Olivia with Poland in May, 1660; the Peace of Copenhagen with Denmark in July, 1660; and the Peace of Cardis with Russia in July, 1661.

In 1675 Charles XI. of Sweden, as an ally of Louis XIV. of France, became involved in a disastrous war with the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg and King Christian V. of Denmark, who were aided by a Dutch fleet. The Swedes invaded Brandenburg, but were defeated by the Great Elector's forces twice within four days at Rathenow and Fehrbellin, in June, 1675. The brilliant victory of the Great Elector in the battle of Fehrbellin, June 28, 1675, was the foundation of Prussia's greatness.

In 1675 the Danes and the Dutch also defeated the Swedes at sea several times. The Danes conquered the island of Rügen from the Swedes; and Stettin, in Swedish Pomerania, surrendered to the Great Elector of Brandenburg after a siege of six months.

1091 THE GREAT ELECTOR FREDERICK WILLIAM OF BRANDENBURG IN THE BATTLE OF FEHRBELLIN.

In 1676 the Swedes defeated Christian V. of Denmark at Halmstadt, and the still severer but undecisive battle of Lunden so disabled him that he was obliged to remain inactive during the remainder of the year 1676. In the summer of 1677 Christian V. was disastrously defeated by the Swedes at Landscrona, but the Danish navy was victorious over the Swedish fleets. In 1678 the Swedes invaded the Great Elector's duchy of East Prussia, but were there defeated, and suffered so severely that only fifteen hundred men of their army of sixteen thousand were able to make their way to Riga, in their Baltic province of Livonia.

This war in the North lasted until 1679, when the intervention of Louis XIV. of France compelled the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg by the Peace of St. Germain-en-Laye, and Christian V. of Denmark by the Peace of Lund, to restore to the Swedes all the territory wrested from them. Thus, by the interference of her ally, the King of France, Sweden emerged from a disastrous war without any loss of territory; but the return of peace found her in a greatly crippled condition, her navy being destroyed and her finances almost ruined; so that it was very evident that she could not have maintained herself without foreign aid.

In this condition of depression, a change in the government was demanded by all classes in Sweden, except the nobility who had acquired great power and influence during the long minority of Charles XI. Accordingly, a peaceful revolution in 1680 entirely changed the character of the Swedish government. In that year the Swedish Diet at Stockholm, representing the clergy, the citizens and the peasants, adopted a new constitution conferring absolute and irresponsible power upon the king.

The Swedish Diet of 1682 required a strict account from all who had administered the finances during the king's minority, and from all who had held leases of crown-lands since the death of Gustavus Adolphus. Thus a thorough reform was introduced into all branches of the public service; and the prndent and energetic measures of Charles XI. during the last half of his reign of thirty-seven years, A. D. 1660–1697, so far retrieved the resources of Sweden that his kingdom was able to resume its old position of supremacy in the North during the brilliant reign of his renowned son and successor CHARLES XII., who became King of Sweden upon his father's death, in 1697.

BRANDENBURG AND PRUSSIA.

In Germany the long reign of the Emperor LEOPOLD I., A. D. 1658–1705—who was chosen to the imperial throne after an interregnum of sixteen months following the death of his father Ferdinand III., in 1657—was mainly occupied by his wars with Louis XIV. of France and with the Turks; but during this period there was a far abler and greater prince in Germany than the Emperor Leopold I. himself—FREDERICK WILLIAM, *the Great Elector of Brandenburg*, who laid the foundation of the Kingdom of Prussia, which was destined to become mistress of Germany, and to make Germany the leading power of Continental Europe.

Frederick William became Elector of Brandenburg and Duke of Prussia in 1640, and reigned forty-eight years, dying in 1688. By the Treaty of Welau, in 1657, he liberated Prussia from her vassalage to Poland; and in 1666 the duchy of Cleve and the counties of Mark and Ravensberg were annexed to the dominions of the Brandenburg House of Hohenzollern. The Great Elector's part in the wars against Louis XIV., as an ally of Holland, have already been related; as have also his participation in the wars against Charles X. and Charles XI. of Sweden. We have seen that by his great victory over the Swedish invaders of his dominions at Fehrbellin, June 28, 1675, he laid the foundation of Prussia's greatness. He followed up that victory by wresting almost all of Pomerania from Sweden.

After the restoration of peace with Sweden and France the Great Elector devoted himself to the promotion of the interests of his dominions. He encouraged art, science,

literature, agriculture, manufactures and commerce. He encouraged foreign immigration into his dominions, and his liberality towards the twenty thousand Huguenot refugees from France proved beneficial to the rising young state. He secured the lofty position of his state by the formation of a considerable army. His son and successor, FREDERICK III., was crowned the first *King of Prussia*, at Königsburg, in 1701, with the title of FREDERICK I. Thus the two leading powers in Germany were Austria under the imperial House of Hapsburg, and Prussia under the House of Brandenburg or Hohenzollern.

POLAND.

The elective kingdom of Poland—or the *Republic of Poland*, as the Poles themselves called it—was gradually declining during the seventeenth century. Every election of king by the Polish Diet was a scene of violent contention; and the unfortunate country was constantly torn by domestic dissensions and civil wars, and involved in wars with the Swedes, the Russians, the Cossacks, the Turks and the Tartars, by which Poland was successively deprived of large portions of her territories.

The constitution and state of society in Poland was not such as tended to develop civilization and political freedom, and to promote peace and prosperity. Poland had no middle class, the only palladium of liberty in a monarchical country. The only liberty which existed in Poland was the power of the nobles to quarrel with each other, to tyrannize over the serfs upon their estates, and to vote for a puppet king. Poland had only nobles and serfs—the former full of false pride and buried in selfishness and luxury, and the latter in abject slavery and ignorance without any legal existence. This state of society was the cause of the political evils from which Poland was suffering.

An election of King of Poland was a matter of the greatest excitement. All the palatines and the chief nobility from every part of Poland repaired to Warsaw, which had now become the Polish capital; each one coming armed and on horseback, and attended by a numerous retinue of vassals, consisting of all the gentlemen in his palatinate. Warsaw and its environs presented an animated scene, and occasionally swords were drawn in support of the various candidates, who were not permitted to be present themselves. The *Pacta Conventa*, or chartered conditions for the new king's signature, were drawn up in a temporary structure on the plain of Wola, near Warsaw; and additions were made to these conditions at every election, until the king was shorn of almost every prerogative.

Troops of horsemen assembled on the day of election on the plain of Wola, which was scarcely large enough, though twelve miles in circumference. The Senate and the Nuncios took their seats, and the nobles of each palatine were ranged in separate bodies under their respective banners. The names of the various candidates for the honors of royalty were then declared by the Archbishop of Warsaw, who, kneeling, repeated a prayer, and afterward went round on horseback to collect the votes, which were counted in the Senate; and the candidate for whom the most votes had been cast was immediately proclaimed King of Poland.

SIGISMUND III., who was elected King of Poland in 1587, as already noticed, had been deposed in Sweden in 1599. He refused to relinquish the Swedish crown, and waged war against his uncle, King Charles IX. of Sweden, and with the latter's son and successor, the Great Gustavus Adolphus, from 1620 to 1629. Sigismund III. also prosecuted hostilities against Russia, and in 1611 the Poles took and burned Moscow. From 1620 to 1622 war raged between Poland and Turkey; and the Turks defeated the Poles with great loss at Jassy, in Moldavia, in September, 1620; but in 1621 the Turks were defeated with the loss of eighty thousand men.

King LADISLAS VII., who was elected to the Polish throne upon the death of his father Sigismund III., in 1632, defeated the

Russians at Smolensk, and by the Peace of Wiasma in 1634 he wrested Smolensk, Tchernigov and Novgorod from Russia; but near the end of his reign the Cossacks of the Ukraine transferred their allegiance to the Czar of Russia. The Cossacks, who served Poland under a hetman, or commander, as a frontier guard, had once been the most faithful friends of Poland, but had now become by oppression her most inveterate enemies—a result caused by the non-residence of the landholders, who were mainly Polish nobles and never visited the Ukraine themselves, but intrusted the charge of their estates to stewards or middlemen, who enriched themselves by a double system of plunder from both the landlords and the tenants. After one revolt of the Cossacks had been suppressed, the Diet of Poland passed a decree annulling almost all the liberties of those brave and warlike people.

A comparatively private instance of tyranny brought matters to a crisis. A Cossack named Bogdan, who dwelt on the banks of the Dnieper, had saved the wife of the Castellan of Cracow from being captured by the Turks; and the castellan had rewarded him with a windmill and a small estate adjoining, where he lived happily until the death of the castellan, when the steward sought to deprive him of his property. Bogdan resisted; whereupon the steward fired his house, and his wife and infant son perished in the flames. This outrage was well calculated to rouse the passions of the already excited Cossacks, who immediately flew to arms, solicited aid from the Turks, and were speedily reinforced by an army of forty thousand Tartars of the Crimea. Bogdan assumed the position of hetman of this Tartar army, and made himself master of the entire Ukraine; after which he led his army into Poland, where his troops perpetrated the most horrible deeds of violence.

In the midst of this war King Ladislas VII. of Poland died, A. D. 1648, whereupon his brother JOHN CASIMIR was elected King of Poland by the Polish Diet. John Casimir's reign was an unfortunate one for his country. With the support of Sultan Mohammed IV. of Turkey, Bogdan assumed the title of Prince of the Ukraine, laid waste all of Lithuania, and everywhere reduced the convents, the churches and the Jesuit colleges to ashes.

John Casimir unfortunately adopted the title of hereditary King of Sweden, thus provoking an invasion of Poland by King Charles X. of Sweden. John Casimir fled from Warsaw, which was entered by the Swedish monarch; but the insolence and oppression of the Swedish soldiers incensed the Poles, who fled in large numbers to join the standard of their fugitive king. The Czar Alexis of Russia, who had also invaded Poland, now concluded a truce with the Poles, who were also supported by Holland, Denmark, the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg, and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany. By the Peace of Olivia, in 1660, John Casimir relinquished his foolish pretensions to the crown of Sweden.

In the meantime Bogdan had died, and the Cossacks of the Ukraine had returned to their allegiance to Poland on receiving guarantees for their civil and religious liberties. But the war with Russia was renewed, and it continued until 1667, when the Peace of Andrussov was concluded, by which Russia retained Smolensk, Kiev, Tchernigov, and all the country of the Cossacks east of the Dnieper. The territory of the Cossacks west of the Dnieper was annexed to Poland, and the Zaporog Cossacks, near the mouth of the same river, were placed under the common jurisdiction of Poland and Russia, ready to serve against the Turks as occasion demanded.

The resources of Poland were also exhausted by a war with the Turks; though this war afforded a field for the development of the military genius of John Sobieski, "the Buckler of Christ," one of the greatest warriors of his time, who greatly distinguished himself in Poland's continual wars with the Cossacks, the Tartars, the Swedes, the Russians and the Turks, and who obtained the dignity of Grand Marshal of

Poland. One of his most memorable exploits was the great victory which he won with only twenty thousand men over one hundred thousand Cossacks and Tartars in a series of battles lasting seventeen days, in 1667, thus saving Poland from destruction.

During John Casimir's unfortunate reign the elegances of civilized life were introduced into Poland by intercourse with France, but the destructive wars with the Cossacks and the Tartars had injured commerce and retarded the progress of education.

The *Liberum Veto*—a dangerous innovation introduced into the Polish Diet about this time—enabled any one member of the Diet to defeat any measure to which he was opposed, to stop the proceedings and even to dissolve the Diet. Scarcely any measure could be proposed in an assembly of four hundred persons which would receive the approbation of every one of them; and every member was thus enabled to prevent the passage of even the most important laws when he was influenced by passion, by private interest or by bribery from foreign sources. This absurd custom, so pregnant with disorders, hastened the ruin of Poland, which the want of a middle class was destined to bring on sooner or later.

Finally John Casimir, worn out by misfortunes, and seeing his dominions depopulated by constant wars and pestilence, which he was unable to avert without great sacrifices, began to sigh again for the seclusion of the prelacy which he had exchanged for the Polish throne. Twenty years of his life had been imbittered by the cares and vexations of government when he resolved to abdicate his royal dignity. He therefore convened the Polish Diet in 1668, announced his resolution in an affecting speech, bade farewell to his subjects and his country, and retired into France, where he was kindly received by King Louis XIV., and where he lived in a style suitable to his rank until his death, in 1672.

John Casimir's abdication was followed by an interregnum of seven months; after which MICHAEL WIESNOWISKI was elected King of Poland in a stormy session of the Polish Diet, and was compelled to accept the Polish crown against his will. He had passed his previous life in a monastery, and was extremely poor and wholly unfit for his royal duties. His entire reign of four years, A. D. 1669–1673, was a period of internal dissension and virtual anarchy. Four Diets were dissolved in less than four years.

In the midst of these domestic troubles the war with the Cossacks was renewed; and the Turks and the Tartars, the allies of the Cossacks, invaded Poland, seized the city of Kaminiec in 1672, and gained possession of the Ukraine, in spite of the prodigies of valor and military skill of John Sobieski. King Michael Wiesnowiski, in a state of great alarm, concluded a humiliating peace with the Turks, ceding to them the city of Kaminiec and the province of Podolia, and even agreeing to pay to them an annual tribute of twenty-two thousand ducats. The Ukraine west of the Dneiper was relinquished to the Cossacks, who were to be placed under the protection of the Turks. The Polish Diet refused to ratify this treaty, as it preferred to continue the war. The day after King Michael Wiesnowiski's death, John Sobieski with a small force gained a brilliant victory near Kotzim over eighty thousand Turks, who fled, leaving forty thousand dead upon the field, November 11, 1673—a victory which electrified all Christendom.

After an interregnum of some months, JOHN SOBIESKI was elected King of Poland by the national Diet at Wola in 1674, and was crowned at Cracow with unusual magnificence. He had the arduous task of raising his kingdom from a condition of extreme depression and embarrassment. By extraordinary exertions he augmented the military force of his kingdom, and by his prowess he rescued two-thirds of the Ukraine from the Turks in 1676. By the Peace of Zarowno, October 26, 1676, the Turks were allowed to retain the city of Kaminiec, a part of the Ukraine and Podolia; but Poland was relieved from the tribute promised by Michael Wiesnowiski, and retained that part of the Ukraine wrested from the Turks.

King John Sobieski attracted the attention of all Europe by his relief of Vienna from the besieging host of two hundred thousand Turks under Kara Mustapha in 1683, thus immortalizing his name and throwing a great splendor over the waning glories of Poland; but this splendor was only temporary, and did not for a moment arrest the rapid decline of the Polish kingdom.

John Sobieski's talents were confined to brilliant military exploits. He was a great soldier, but no statesman. He could preserve Poland from her foreign foes, but was utterly unable to reduce the turbulent Polish nobility to order, or to put an end to the internal dissensions which distracted his unhappy kingdom.

By the treaty of Leopold, or Lemberg, in 1686, which John Sobieski signed with tears in his eyes, the hero-king was obliged to cede Smolensk, Kiev, Tchernigov, Little Russia and other territories, and the exclusive sovereignty of the territory of the Zaporog Cossacks, to the Czar of Russia, in order to obtain the Czar's alliance and aid against the Turks and the Tartars.

John Sobieski's last years were rendered sad by his failure to introduce reforms into the Polish government. The nobles invariably interposed their Liberum Veto; and at the close of a stormy session of the Diet, in 1688, the unhappy king confessed with tears in his eyes that he was unable to save Poland. John Sobieski reigned as a mere crowned cipher until his death, in 1696; and with him ended the greatness of Poland.

After an interregnum of some months, the Elector Frederick Augustus II. of Saxony was elected King of Poland in 1697 with the title of FREDERICK AUGUSTUS I. By the Peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Poland recovered Kaminiec, Podolia, and that part of the Ukraine ceded to the Turks by the Peace of Zarowno in 1676.

RUSSIA.

BORIS GODUNOF, who was elected Czar of Russia by the Russian nobles, upon the extinction of the male line of Rurik, in 1598, reigned seven years, as already noticed. The chief event of his reign was the establishment of serfdom in Russia, but on the whole his rule was beneficial to his empire. He caused the laws to be administered impartially, encouraged the arts and trades, induced many intelligent foreigners to settle in his dominions, and in other ways promoted the civilization of Russia. He treated the boyars with great severity, thus alienating that class from him. The Russian peasants bitterly resented the establishment of serfdom, and a bloody peasant outbreak was suppressed with difficulty.

A terrible famine broke out in Russia in 1601, and lasted three years, carrying off more than one hundred thousand persons in Moscow alone. Boris Godunof exerted himself to his utmost to relieve the wants of his subjects, but was able to accomplish very little in the midst of so much suffering.

In the midst of the discontent which the famine caused, an impostor appeared in Poland, claiming to be Dimitri, the son of Ivan, whom Boris Godunof had caused to be put to death when a child. This pretended Dimitri was supported by a number of Polish noblemen, and raised an army with which he invaded Russia in 1603. All who were dissatisfied with Boris Godunof flocked to the impostor's standard, and the false Dimitri soon had a considerable army. He achieved a victory over the Czar's troops, but was at length defeated, after which he took refuge in one of the fortified cities, where he maintained his position.

Boris Godunof died suddenly, April 13, 1605, and was succeeded as Czar of Russia by his son FEODOR II., a youth of sixteen years. In the following month, May, 1605, the Russian army revolted, and proclaimed the false Dimitri Czar of Russia. On June 1, 1605, the inhabitants of Moscow also proclaimed the pretended Dimitri Czar, seized the youthful Feodor II. and shut him up in prison, where he was assassinated shortly afterward.

DIMITRI entered Moscow, June 20, 1605, amid the joyful acclamations of the populace, and several weeks afterward he was

solemnly crowned Czar of all the Russias. He exhibited unusual talents as a sovereign, and was a monarch of more liberal views than had ever reigned over Russia before. His chief desire was to unite all the forces of the Slavonic race to drive the Tartars and the Turks from Europe, and he at once commenced preparing for this struggle. He resolved that the clergy should bear their proper share of the expenses of the war, and accordingly imposed a tax upon them, thus compassing his own ruin.

The clergy did not intend to bear any of the public burdens, and used their powerful influence against the Czar. They instigated a conspiracy to dethrone him; and the plot was joined by a number of boyars, among whom were some of those who had assisted in placing him on the Russian throne after deserting the standard of Boris Godunof. The leader of the conspiracy was Vassili Shuiski, a powerful boyar whom Dimitri had specially favored.

On May 18, 1606, the Czar Dimitri was married with great pomp to a Polish princess, who came attended by a numerous retinue of her own countrymen. The Czar's marriage to a princess outside of the Greek Church mortally offended the Russian people; and the thoughtless conduct of the Poles, who manifested open disrespect for the Greek faith, vastly increased this feeling among the Czar's subjects. On the night of the Czar's marriage the conspirators took advantage of the popular discontent by taking up arms against the Czar; and, as they were joined by the people of Moscow, they forced an entrance into the Kremlin and attacked the palace, assassinating Dimitri and the few who defended him, while the new Czarina narrowly escaped with her life.

Upon the assassination of Dimitri the boyars immediately proclaimed Vassili Shuiski Czar of Russia with the title of VASSILI VI., and he was crowned June 1, 1606. A part of the Russian nation refused to acknowledge the rule of Vassili VI., and a rebellion soon broke out against him. A rumor was circulated that the Czar Dimitri was still living, and that he had escaped to Poland, whence he issued commands to his adherents to attack Vassili VI. Another false Dimitri soon appeared in Russia, with the aid of a Polish army, and marched toward Moscow.

As the Czar Vassili VI. entered into an alliance with King Charles IX. of Sweden to resist this invasion, King Sigismund III. of Poland espoused the cause of this second false Dimitri. Vassili VI. found his Swedish allies wholly untrustworthy, as they soon deserted to the Poles, so that Moscow was forced to surrender to the Poles in 1610. The Czar Vassili VI. was taken prisoner and was sent to a Polish fortress, where he died the next year.

As the Poles were attacked in Moscow by the inhabitants in 1611, they burned the city and massacred thousands of the populace. A period of anarchy followed, during which Russia was without a sovereign, while her capital was occupied by the Polish invaders. The evident intention of the Poles to reduce Russia to the condition of a Polish province revived the national spirit of the Russian people, and in 1612 Pozharski and other popular Russian leaders drove the Poles from Moscow and forced them to retire into their own dominions.

After thus delivering their country from its foreign conquerors the Russians proceeded to elect a new Czar, and their choice fell upon the good and peaceable MICHAEL ROMANOFF, who was proclaimed and crowned Czar of all the Russias in 1613, thus becoming the founder of the illustrious dynasty of the Romanoffs, who have ever since occupied the imperial throne of Russia, and under whom Russia has emerged from Asiatic barbarism to European civilization and become one of the rising powers of Europe. Michael Romanoff was the son of Feodor, Archbishop of Rostov and afterward Patriarch of Moscow, and was a descendant of Rurik through the female line. He was only sixteen years old when he was elected to the dignity of Autocrat of all the Russias; and he reigned thirty-two years, A. D. 1613–1645, during which he restored peace

to his distracted empire, relieving it of civil and foreign wars.

By the Peace of Stolbova with King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, in 1617, the Czar Michael Romanoff ceded the provinces of Ingria and Russian Carelia to Sweden. By the Truce of Divilina, in 1618, and the Peace of Wiasma, in 1634, the Czar ceded the vast territories of Smolensk, Tchernigov and Novgorod, with their dependencies, to Poland. After thus ending his wars with Sweden and Poland, Michael Romanoff devoted all his energies to promoting the prosperity of Russia and to the preservation of

MICHAEL ROMANOFF.

peace with her neighbors. He concluded commercial treaties with England, France, Persia and China, thus reviving the prostrate trade of Russia. In 1639 he extended the Russian dominions eastward to the Pacific. He proved himself a wise and able sovereign, and recovered for his empire some of its lost prosperity.

Upon the death of Michael Romanoff, in 1645, his eldest son ALEXIS became Czar and Autocrat of all the Russias. Alexis energetically and vigorously pursued his renowned father's policy for the civilization of Russia and for placing her among the nations of Europe. He extended his dominion over the Don Cossacks; thus becoming involved in a war with John Casimir, King of Poland, who had exercised jurisdiction over the Don Cossacks. In alliance with King Charles X. of Sweden, Alexis invaded Poland in 1654; but after the Swedish king had captured Warsaw in 1656 the Czar became jealous and alarmed, and concluded a truce with the Polish king in order to turn his arms against the Swedes. After the conclusion of peace between Sweden and Poland the Czar Alexis renewed his war with John Casimir of Poland; and by the Peace of Andrussov, in 1667, he recovered Smolensk, Kiev, Tchernigov, and all of the Ukraine east of the Dnieper.

The Czar Alexis Romanoff died in 1676, and was succeeded on the Russian throne by his son FEODOR III., who rendered his reign illustrious by the wisdom of his administration. Acting under the counsels of his able and enlightened Minister, Prince Galitzin, the Czar Feodor III. established the absolute power of the Czars by abolishing the hereditary orders of the Russian nobility and the prerogatives that were attached to them. These orders were destructive of all subordination in civil and military affairs, and were productive of numberless controversies and litigations, which were taken cognizance of by a court named *Rozrad*. In a grand assembly convoked by him at Moscow in 1682 the Czar Feodor III. abolished the hereditary rank of the Russian nobles, burned the deeds and the genealogical registers upon which the nobles based their claims, and required every noble family of Russia to produce the extracts of these registers, which they had in their possession, that they might also be consigned to the flames.

Upon the death of Feodor III., in 1682,

his two brothers, IVAN V. and PETER, were crowned joint sovereigns of Russia. The elder brother, Ivan V., who was the son of Alexis by that Czar's first marriage, was a poor deformed idiot, and was therefore Czar only in name. As Peter, the son of Alexis by a second marriage, was a mere boy, the government of Russia was intrusted to the regency of his half-sister Sophia, the daughter of Alexis by that Czar's first marriage. Sophia was a beautiful and daring princess, and sought to secure the Russian crown for herself.

Peter defeated his half-sister's ambitious scheme in 1689 by seizing the Russian throne and making himself sole Czar and Autocrat of all the Russias at the youthful age of seventeen. Such was the beginning of the celebrated reign of the renowned PETER THE GREAT. The young Czar was addicted to drunkenness and to sensual pleasures; but he already gave evidence of the wonderful energy and strength of will which were destined to make him one of the most remarkable characters of history, and which eventually acquired for him the well-merited title of *the Great.* He began his sole reign with the firm resolve to make Russia one of the great powers of Europe. Russia was already a powerful empire, but was politically isolated from the rest of Europe.

Peter the Great paid great attention to the improvement of Archangel, on the White Sea, then the only sea-port of Russia. He believed that his empire must have a more extended sea-coast in order to give it the rank to which it was entitled among the European powers. In alliance with John Sobieski, King of Poland, Peter the Great waged war against the Turks, from whom he conquered the territory of Azov, on the Black Sea, in 1696, annexing it to his dominions. After thus securing a footing on the Black Sea, he resolved to create a fleet which should enable him to hold his conquest and make Russia superior to Turkey.

In order to found a navy for Russia, and to learn the arts of civilization in order that he might introduce them among his subjects, the Czar Peter the Great intrusted the administration of the Russian government to an old boyar, and traveled over Europe to study the institutions of other nations and to learn the industrial arts by which those nations had acquired their prosperity. With this view of learning the practical advantages of civilization that he might become the reformer and civilizer of his barbarous subjects, the Czar started on his travels in 1697.

Traveling in disguise as a subordinate in one of his own embassies, Peter the Great passed through part of Sweden and Brandenburg, and spent several months at Saardam, in Holland, where he worked as a common ship-carpenter, receiving his wages every Saturday night, and adopting the raiment, food and lodging of his fellow workmen in the shop and yard, thus learning by actual experience the art of ship-building. While in Holland the vigilant Czar observed the other sources of that country's prosperity; while at the same time he kept a close watch over the affairs of Russia, being constantly informed of events in his remote dominions. He directed the government of his empire from his laborer's hut in Holland, and often laid down the plane or hatchet to sign an order for the march of an army or for the arrest of a suspected traitor.

By the invitation of King William III., Peter the Great visited England in 1698, and was cordially received by his royal host; but, instead of wasting his time in court festivities, the distinguished guest visited the dock-yards and established himself near the royal navy-yard at Deptford, where he continued his labors in ship-building, while receiving instruction in surgery, mathematics and navigation. In this way Peter the Great prepared himself to be the civilizer of his subjects—a noble ambition which contributed vastly to redeem his faults.

After thus completing his studies and perfecting his knowledge of the art of ship-building, Peter the Great paid a visit of ceremony to the Emperor Leopold I. of Ger-

many at Vienna; and he would have also visited Italy had he not been recalled to Russia by intelligence of a revolt of the *Strelitz*, the Russian militia, the same year, 1698.

The Strelitz had made several attempts upon Peter's life, in obedience to the orders of his half-sister Sophia; and Peter had commenced during his boyhood to train a body of infantry according to the German tactics, to supersede his formidable and turbulent militia. Peter now considered that the time had arrived for the extermination of the Strelitz. While still abroad he gave directions to his generals, and the ringleaders of the revolt were soon in irons. The revolt was speedily suppressed, and seven thousand prisoners were taken. Upon his return to Moscow, in September, 1698, the Czar caused every one of these prisoners to be put to death, himself beheading many of them. He thus dissolved the Strelitz forever. His half-sister Sophia, whom the malcontents had intended to place on the Russian throne, and who was believed to have instigated and directed the plot, was imprisoned in a convent.

After restoring order and securing his power by his prompt and bloody suppression of the revolt of the Strelitz, Peter the Great began to execute his cherished plans for the civilization of his empire by putting in force the measures by which he hoped to bring Russia into direct intercourse with the rest of Europe and to fit her for the position which he intended that she should assume.

He changed the titles of the nobility, and greatly curtailed their powers. He permitted the free circulation of the Bible among his subjects, and granted perfect religious toleration. He encouraged immigration by inviting into Russia foreign officers, generals, mariners, artists and literary men whose talents could assist him in the formation of his plans, as well as those skilled artisans whose industries he patronized and sought to introduce into his dominions. By the Czar's order, arsenals, factories, and schools of navigation were established in Russia. Competent experts and engineers made maps and charts of different portions of the Russian Empire, and also a general survey of the mines.

Peter the Great found greater difficulty in introducing European domestic customs among his subjects. The Czar himself set the example by laying aside the old Russian national dress and adopting the European costume. He required all Russians, except the priests and the peasants, to follow his example. He imposed a heavy tax upon beards in order to abolish them. The long robes and the unkempt beards of the men, and the Oriental seclusion of the women, gradually gave way to European costumes and social customs; but a brutal indulgence still prevailed at the Russian court as well as among the common people.

Although Peter the Great could civilize his subjects he could not civilize himself; and he remained a cruel barbarian all his life, devoted to brandy and guilty of some shocking crimes. He busied himself daily with the cares of state; and every evening after resting from his labors he would have a big bottle of brandy set before him, and drink until his reason was gone for the time. He often said that he could correct the faults of his subjects, but could not reform himself. Yet his name stands deservedly among the first of those sovereigns who have labored for the good of their subjects, as he did more for the civilization and welfare of the Russian people than all his predecessors and successors.

TURKEY.

The Ottoman or Turkish Empire, which had once been so formidable, had gradually fallen from the summit of its grandeur and steadily declined. Its resources were exhausted, and its history was marked only by misfortunes. The effeminacy and incapacity of the Sultans, their contempt for the arts of the nations of Christendom, and the evils of a purely military and despotic government, gradually undermined the strength of the Empire, and eclipsed its glory as a conquering power. The Janizaries became the real arbiters of the destinies of the Empire, raising up and deposing or murdering

Sultans at will; thus following the example of the Prætorian Guards of Ancient Rome, who made and unmade Emperors at pleasure. Most of the provinces were ruled by pashas, who oppressed the inhabitants with burdensome taxes for the purpose of enriching themselves.

ACHMET I., the son and successor of Mohammed III., who died of the plague in 1603, was a youth of fifteen when he became Sultan of Turkey, and had been shut up in prison during his father's reign. The Hungarians and the Persians waged war against Turkey during the reign of Achmet I., who did not lead his own troops, but passed most of his time in his harem, which contained over three thousand females. Achmet I. erected a stately mosque near the Church of St. Sophia, which still constitutes one of the principal architectural ornaments of Constantinople. During the reign of Achmet I. the Peace of Sitvatorok, in 1607, ended the war with the German Empire begun in 1594.

Achmet I. died in 1617, and was succeeded as Sultan of Turkey by his brother MUSTAPHA I., who was unfit for government, and was therefore deposed and imprisoned by the Janizaries in 1618, after a reign of fourth months. The Janizaries placed OTHMAN II., the youthful son of Achmet I., upon the Turkish throne. War broke out between Turkey and Poland in 1620; and Sultan Othman II. defeated the Poles with great loss at Jassy, in Moldavia, in September, 1620; but the young Sultan, presuming on his great victory to attempt the conquest of Poland, was defeated with the loss of eighty thousand men in 1621, and was forced to consent to an ignominious peace. This disastrous failure so enraged the Janizaries that they rose in insurrection at the close of the war, in 1622, and assassinated the youthful Othman II. by strangling him in the castle of the Seven Towers, a state prison belonging to the Seraglio, after a reign of four years, and when he was only eighteen years of age.

The murdered Othman's imbecile uncle, the deposed MUSTAPHA I., was then dragged from his dungeon and restored to his throne. The pashas of the various provinces of the Empire took advantage of the confusion to rebel, thus causing such a scene of anarchy that the chief men of Constantinople met together and deposed Mustapha I. a second time, A. D. 1623, in less than a year after his restoration to the Ottoman throne, and again imprisoned him in the Seven Towers.

AMURATH IV., a younger brother of Othman II., was then placed upon the Turkish throne. He was arbitrary, tyrannical, fierce and cruel; but he restored order to the Ottoman Empire, and punished the rebellious Janizaries. His extravagant acts of folly have furnished subjects for many an Oriental tale. He was immoderately fond of wine—an indulgence expressly forbidden by the Koran. When intoxicated he committed all kinds of absurd and furious actions. He sometimes traversed the streets of the Turkish capital with a drawn sword, to kill any one whom he might see smoking—a practice which he had forbidden, because he disliked the smell of tobacco. Occasionally he amused himself by discharging arrows from a bow in all directions, utterly regardless of whom he might kill. His attendants trembled at the very sound of his footsteps, and the people in the streets would conceal themselves at his approach. He defeated the Persians, captured Bagdad, and massacred its inhabitants in 1638.

Sultan Amurath IV. died in 1640, from excessive drinking, and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his brother IBRAHIM, whose intellect had been so impaired by the close confinement in which he had been kept that he was wholly unable to direct the affairs of state. In 1645 the Turks began a war with Venice for the conquest of the island of Candia, the ancient Crete, and one of the most valuable of the possessions of the Venetian Republic. While this *War of Candia* was still in progress, Sultan Ibrahim was deposed by the turbulent Janizaries, in 1649, after a reign of nine years, and was strangled in prison, where he had passed the early part of his life.

Ibrahim's son, MOHAMMED IV., a child of seven years, then became Sultan of Turkey. As soon as he had arrived at an age of discretion he removed his court to Adrianople. He supported the Cossacks of the Ukraine in their revolt against Poland from 1647 to 1654.

The civil oppressions and religious persecutions of the Hungarians led to frequent efforts at revolt against the House of Hapsburg. The precautions which the Hungarian Diet at Presburg had taken to establish civil and religious liberty on a solid basis did not avert disturbances in the Hungarian kingdom. The Hapsburgs perceived the necessity of consolidating their dominions, whose heterogeneous elements were suffering for lack of unity, and they eagerly seized these occasions to extend their power in Hungary, where their authority was vastly circumscribed by the constitution and laws of that kingdom. Thus the Hungarians complained of perpetual infringements on the part of the court of Vienna, and thus arose repeated disturbances in Hungary, the dominion of which was shared by Austria and Turkey.

The Turks then ruled Transylvania, as well as a great part of Hungary. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, as King of Hungary, granted protection to John Kemeny, Prince of Transylvania, against Michael Abaffi, a protegé of the Turks; thus rendering a war between the Ottoman and German Empires inevitable. Leopold I., as King of Hungary, convened the Hungarian Diet at Presburg in 1662 to take action in this crisis. But before giving any opinion concerning the war with the Turks, the Hungarian Diet demanded from Leopold I. a redress of grievances, and adjourned without any decision as to the impending war.

The Turks profited by these dissensions in the Austrian dominions, and a Turkish army of two hundred thousand men under the Grand Vizier Achmet Köproli invaded Austrian Hungary in 1663, thus bringing on another war between the Ottoman and German Empires. The Turkish invaders speedily captured Neuhäusel and several other fortresses in Austrian Hungary, in spite of the vigorous exertions of the famous Montecuculi, the commander of the Austrian and German imperial forces; while a Tartar horde ravaged Moravia almost as far as Olmutz. Leopold I., incapable of opposing the Turks, and distrustful of the Hungarian malcontents, appealed as Emperor to the German Imperial Diet.

In this crisis of peril which menaced all Christendom, Sweden, France, Pope Alexander VII. and the Italian states sent contributions of men and money; and, with the extraordinary supplies voted by the German Imperial Diet, Montecuculi was enabled to take the field against the Ottoman invaders with a formidable army, in which were six thousand French auxiliaries under the Count de Coligni, sent by King Louis XIV. Montecuculi routed the Turks in the great battle of St. Gothard, near the frontier of Hungary and Styria, in 1664; the French auxiliaries signalizing their bravery.

Instead of making use of this advantage to prosecute hostilities with increased energy and vigor, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany concluded the twenty years' Truce of Vasvar with the Turks, in August, 1664; permitting them to retain all their conquests in Austrian Hungary, continuing their protegé and tributary Michael Abaffi in Transylvania, and even paying them a tribute of two hundred thousand florins, disguised under the name of a gift. The Emperor Leopold I. had been largely forced to this humiliating treaty by the enmity of the Hungarians against the imperial House of Hapsburg.

In 1669 the Turks finally conquered the island of Candia, after a war of twenty-four years with Venice, and after a siege of two years and four months, during which they lost one hundred thousand lives. The French had vainly endeavored to relieve the beleaguered island. The island of Candia has ever since remained in the possession of the Turks.

In 1672 the Turks invaded Poland, as allies of the revolted Cossacks, and seized the city of Kaminiec; but the next year an

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army of eighty thousand Turks was utterly defeated with the loss of forty thousand killed by a small Polish force under the valiant John Sobieski at Kotzim, November 11, 1673. This brilliant victory of the Polish hero checked the progress of the Turkish invaders of Poland, and electrified all Christendom. By the Peace of Zarowno, October 26, 1676, the Turks retained the city of Kaminiec with a considerable part of the Ukraine and Podolia, but restored some portions of the Ukraine to Poland.

The Truce of Vasvar was highly displeasing to the Hungarians, as it had been concluded without their concurrence. The complaints of the Hungarians against the court of Vienna grew louder. They complained of the Emperor Leopold's action in quartering German troops among them, in occupying the principal fortresses of Hungary with German troops, and in imposing shackles on their religious liberties, thus oppressing the Protestants of Hungary.

As Leopold I. paid no regard to their complaints, several of the Hungarian magnates headed an armed revolt for the preservation of the civil and religious liberties of Hungary. Leopold hoped to suppress the Hungarian rising by severity. The magnates who led the insurrection were accused of holding a treasonable correspondence with the Turks, and of conspiring against the life of their king, the Emperor Leopold I. Accordingly such magnates as the Counts Zrini, Nadaschdi, Frangepan and Tattenbach were condemned as guilty of high-treason, and were beheaded on the scaffold in 1671. Many of the Protestant clergy of Hungary were banished from the country, or condemned to the galleys, on the charge of complicity in the plot; while the chartered rights of Hungary were outraged.

But these acts of violence, instead of abating the disturbances, tended rather to augment them, and to excite the love of freedom and the military spirit of the Hungarians. The suppression of the dignity of Palatine of Hungary, which occurred about the same time, along with the cruelties and extortions practiced by the German troops, eventually produced a general rebellion in Hungary against the Austrian House of Hapsburg, which ended in civil war in 1677. The Hungarian rebels at first chose Count Francis Wesselini for their leader, but he was soon superseded by Count Emmerik Tekeli. These patriotic magnates were secretly abetted by Louis XIV. of France and by Sultan Mohammed IV. of Turkey.

Count Emmerik Tekeli, at the head of twelve thousand Hungarians, defeated the Austrian and German imperial armies in Upper Hungary in 1678, and occupied the entire region of the Carpathian mountains. The Emperor Leopold I., as King of Hungary, then found it necessary to comply; and, in the Hungarian Diet, which he convened at Odenburg, he granted redress of most of the grievances complained of by the Hungarians; but, as Count Emmerik Tekeli disapproved of the resolutions of this Diet, the civil war in Hungary continued; and Tekeli formed an alliance with the Prince of Transylvania and with the Sultan of Turkey, who recognized him as tributary King of Hungary in 1682, while Louis XIV. secretly afforded him assistance.

As the twenty years' Truce of Vasvar had now almost expired, the Turks renewed hostilities with Austria and the German Empire in 1683, and an Ottoman army of two hundred thousand men under the Grand Vizier Kara Mustapha marched to the aid of the revolted Hungarians and joined Count Emmerik Tekeli at Essek, in Slavonia. The united Turkish and Hungarian armies, numbering two hundred thousand men, then marched upon Vienna to make the Hapsburgs tremble in their own capital. At the approach of the invaders, the Emperor Leopold I. and his court fled in consternation to Linz, followed by sixty thousand persons in a single day; and the Austrian capital seemed doomed.

The immense Turkish hosts under Kara Mustapha laid siege to Vienna, July 14, 1683. The inhabitants and the brave garrison under Count Rudiger von Stahremberg

withstood the siege for two months, in spite of all assaults; but six thousand of the garrison perished by battle and pestilence, and the fall of the city appeared at hand.

At the earnest solicitations of the Emperor Leopold I., the valiant John Sobieski, King of Poland, who had covered himself with glory by his gallant defense of Poland against Cossacks, Tartars and Turks, now came with eighteen thousand Polish veterans to the relief of Austria's beleaguered capital. He was joined by the German imperial army under Duke Charles of Lorraine; and the united Polish and German armies, numbering eighty-three thousand men, under the chief command of the Polish warrior-king, appeared before Vienna on the evening of Saturday, September 11, 1683; his arrival upon the heights of Kahlenberg being betokened by the discharge of rockets, thus kindling new hopes in the starving citizens of the Austrian capital.

Although the besieging Ottoman hosts outnumbered the Polish and German troops more than two to one, John Sobieski's name alone was a terror to the Turks. The next day after the Polish king's arrival, Sunday, September 12, 1683, was decided the question whether the crescent of Islam or the cross of Christ was to wave on the spires of Vienna. John Sobieski had drawn up his troops in the plain fronting the Ottoman camp, and ordered an assault on the Turks in their intrenchments, exclaiming as he advanced: "Not to us, O Lord, but to Thee be the glory."

Whole bands of Tartar troops in the Ottoman army broke and fled in the wildest dismay, upon hearing the name of Poland's hero-king repeated along the Turkish lines. An eclipse of the moon added to the consternation of the superstitious Turks, who observed with dread the waning crescent in the heavens. With a furious charge the Polish infantry got possession of an eminence commanding the Grand Vizier's position, and so surprised was Kara Mustapha at this unexpected onset that he instantly gave way to despair.

The charges which were rapidly hurled upon the wavering Ottoman lines put the Turkish hosts to route with terrific slaughter, thus raising the siege of Vienna. Kara Mustapha vainly endeavored to rally his broken hosts. He asked the fleeing Khan of the Tartars: "Can you not aid me?" The Khan replied: "I know the King of Poland, and I tell you that with such an enemy we have no safety but in flight. Look at the sky! See if God is not against us!" So sudden and general was the panic and flight of the Turks that the triumphant John Sobieski entered the deserted camp of the enemy, who, in their flight, had abandoned one hundred and twenty thousand tents, and all their spoils, horses, camels, artillery, baggage and camp equipage to the victorious Christian hosts. Even the consecrated banner of Mohammed became the prize of the victors, and was sent as a trophy to the Pope.

This memorable and decisive victory of Christendom over Islam, of civilization over barbarism, marks the era of the final and rapid decline of the Ottoman Empire. The intelligence of this great victory produced unbounded joy throughout Christendom; but it was unwelcome news to Louis XIV., who had secretly encouraged this Moslem invasion. It is said that letters from the French king containing the entire plan for the siege of Vienna were found in the Grand Vizier's tent. The Emperor Leopold I., who was envious of the favor and applause with which his subjects everywhere greeted the valiant King of Poland, treated him with the meanest ingratitude.

The Polish and German imperial armies under King John Sobieski and Duke Charles of Lorraine pursued the fleeing Turks and again defeated them in their retreat. The fortress of Gran which the Turks had held for almost a century and a half was wrested from them.

In 1684 the German imperial army under Duke Charles of Lorraine captured Wissegrad, Waitzen and Pesth, but failed in a three months' siege of Buda, losing twenty-three thousand men. During the same year the Emperor Leopold I., King John So-

bieski of Poland, the Venetian Republic and Pope Innocent XI. entered into a *Holy League* against the Turks; and the *Holy War* which ensued continued until 1699.

A succession of brilliant victories gained by the famous German imperial generals, Duke Charles of Lorraine, Prince Louis of Baden and Prince Eugene of Savoy, recovered that part of Hungary which had been in the possession of the Turks since the famous victory of Sultan Solyman the Magnificent at Mohacz in 1526. The victory of the Duke of Lorraine over the Turks at Strigova in 1685 recovered the fortress of Neuhäusel for the Austrians. In 1686 the Duke of Lorraine took the strong fortress of Buda by assault after a siege of three months, and after it had been in the possession of the Turks for one hundred and forty-five years. During the same year Russia joined the Holy League against the Ottoman Porte.

The splendid victory of the German imperial army under Charles of Lorraine over the Turks at Mohacz, August 12, 1687—the scene of their great victory in 1526—recovered Transylvania and Slavonia for Austria. These continued reverses cost the life of the Grand Vizier Kara Mustapha, who was strangled by order of the enraged Sultan Mohammed IV. During the same year, 1687, the many Turkish disasters caused a mutiny in the Turkish army and a riot in Constantinople; and Sultan Mohammed IV. was hurled from his throne by the rebellious Janizaries, and imprisoned in the Seven Towers; while his brother SOLYMAN III. was raised to the dignity of Sultan of Turkey.

Encouraged by the brilliant triumphs of his arms, the Emperor Leopold I., as King of Hungary, convened the Hungarian Diet at Presburg in 1687, where he demanded that, in consideration of the extraordinary exertions which he had been obliged to make against the Turks, the Hungarian kingdom should be made hereditary in his family. The magnates of Hungary seemed at first resolved to maintain their right of electing their sovereign; but, as the criminal court of Eperies had already deprived the magnates of their most enterprising leaders and spread terror through the entire Hungarian nation, the magnates soon yielded to the influence of authority.

Accordingly, the Hungarian Diet made a great change in the constitution of Hungary by abolishing elective monarchy and making the Hungarian crown hereditary in the Austrian House of Hapsburg; but the magnates renewed the Golden Privilege—Hungary's Magna Charta—which their ancestors had wrung from King Andrew II. in 1222, excepting that clause in the thirty-first article which authorized the magnates to take up arms against their sovereign whenever they judged him guilty of having broken his coronation oath by infringing the rights and liberties of Hungary.

The Diet at Presburg also consented to the admission of German imperial garrisons into all the fortresses of Hungary. In return for the concessions of the Hungarian Diet, the Emperor Leopold I. confirmed the ancient privileges of the Hungarian nation, and granted perfect religious toleration to all orders and sects in Hungary. His son, the Archduke Joseph of Austria, was crowned the first hereditary King of Hungary, December 19, 1687.

The Russians failed in their efforts to conquer the Tartars of the Crimea; but the Venetians won brilliant victories over the Turks in Central and Southern Greece, capturing a number of towns, among which were Athens and Corinth. The Parthenon, the most important architectural ornament of Athens—still as perfect in its exquisite proportions as in the time of Pericles—was used by the Turks as a powder-magazine. During the siege a bomb from a Venetian vessel fell into the famous edifice, and its explosion shivered the finely sculptured marbles of the central portion to atoms. The Venetian general Morosini completed the conquest of the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, from the Turks in 1690.

The Austrian arms were crowned with repeated victories, and the humiliation of the Turks was deepened during the next

two years after their great defeat at Mohacz in 1687. The German imperial forces took Albe-Royale, Belgrade, Semendria and Gradisca. Sultan Solyman III. now solicited peace; but this was refused by the Emperor Leopold I., who hoped to annihilate the Ottoman power in Europe and to make himself master of the dominions of the former Eastern Roman Empire. The Emperor Leopold's ambitious hopes seemed about to be realized in the campaign of 1689, during which his army under Prince Louis of Baden achieved two splendid victories, one at Nissa, in Servia, and the other at Widdin, in Bulgaria, thus effecting the conquest of the Turkish provinces of Bosnia, Servia and Bulgaria. Prince Louis of Baden established his winter-quarters in the tributary Turkish principality of Wallachia.

The drooping spirits of the Turks was temporarily revived during the campaign of 1690 by the talents and energy of their new Grand Vizier, Mustapha Köproli, Achmet Köproli's son, who, after gaining several victories over the Austrians, recovered the strong fortresses of Nissa, Widdin, Semendria and Belgrade, thus reconquering Bosnia, Servia and Bulgaria from the Austrians. The new Grand Vizier entered Slavonia and defeated the Austrians at Essek, while a Turkish detachment marched into Transylvania.

The extraordinary efforts made by the Sublime Porte for the campaign of 1691 inspired the Turks with hopes of better success; but their expectations were doomed to bitter disappointment by the great battle of Salankemen, in which the brave Mustapha Köproli was slain, thus giving the victory to the Austrians under Prince Louis of Baden, August 19, 1691. In consequence of this great disaster to the Ottoman arms, Sultan Solyman III. was deposed by a revolt of the Janizaries, and his brother ACHMET II. was raised to the Turkish throne.

For the next five years this war between the Ottoman and German Empires languished; as the principal forces of Austria and the German Empire were then occupied in the War of the Grand Alliance against Louis XIV. of France, thus preventing the Emperor Leopold I. from reaping any advantage from the great victory of his arms at Salankemen, and obliging him to act on the defensive in Hungary during the campaigns from 1692 to 1696.

In the meantime the Venetians made many conquests from the Turks in Dalmatia and Albania; while the Czar Peter the Great of Russia wrested the port of Azov, on the Black Sea coast, and its neighboring territory, from the Turks in 1696.

In 1695 Sultan Achmet II. was also driven from his throne by an insurrection of the Janizaries, and his nephew MUSTAPHA II. was elevated to the dignity of Sultan of Turkey. After the new Sultan's accession the Ottoman arms suddenly became formidable once more to Christendom for a brief period, and in 1696 Sultan Mustapha II. led his hosts across the Danube and defeated the Austrians at Bega.

The danger which threatened Christendom was averted by the brilliant military genius of the new commander of the German imperial forces in Hungary—Prince Eugene of Savoy, a Frenchman by birth, but who had been offended by King Louis XIV., and who in revenge entered the service of the Emperor Leopold I., the deadly enemy of the French king. Among the first great achievements of Prince Eugene of Savoy was his signal and decisive victory over Sultan Mustapha II. in the great battle of Zenta, on the Theiss, in the South of Hungary, September 11, 1697, in which the Grand Vizier, seventeen pashas and two-thirds of the Ottoman army were left dead upon the field. The defeated Sultan was obliged to retreat in disorder to Belgrade.

The terrible disaster to the Ottoman arms at Zenta made the Turks exceedingly anxious for peace. Sultan Mustapha II. had recourse to the mediation of England, and King William III. used his great influence in favor of peace. After three months of negotiation at Carlowitz, near Peterwardein, in Slavonia, Sultan Mustapha II. concluded a treaty of peace with the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, King Frederick Augustus

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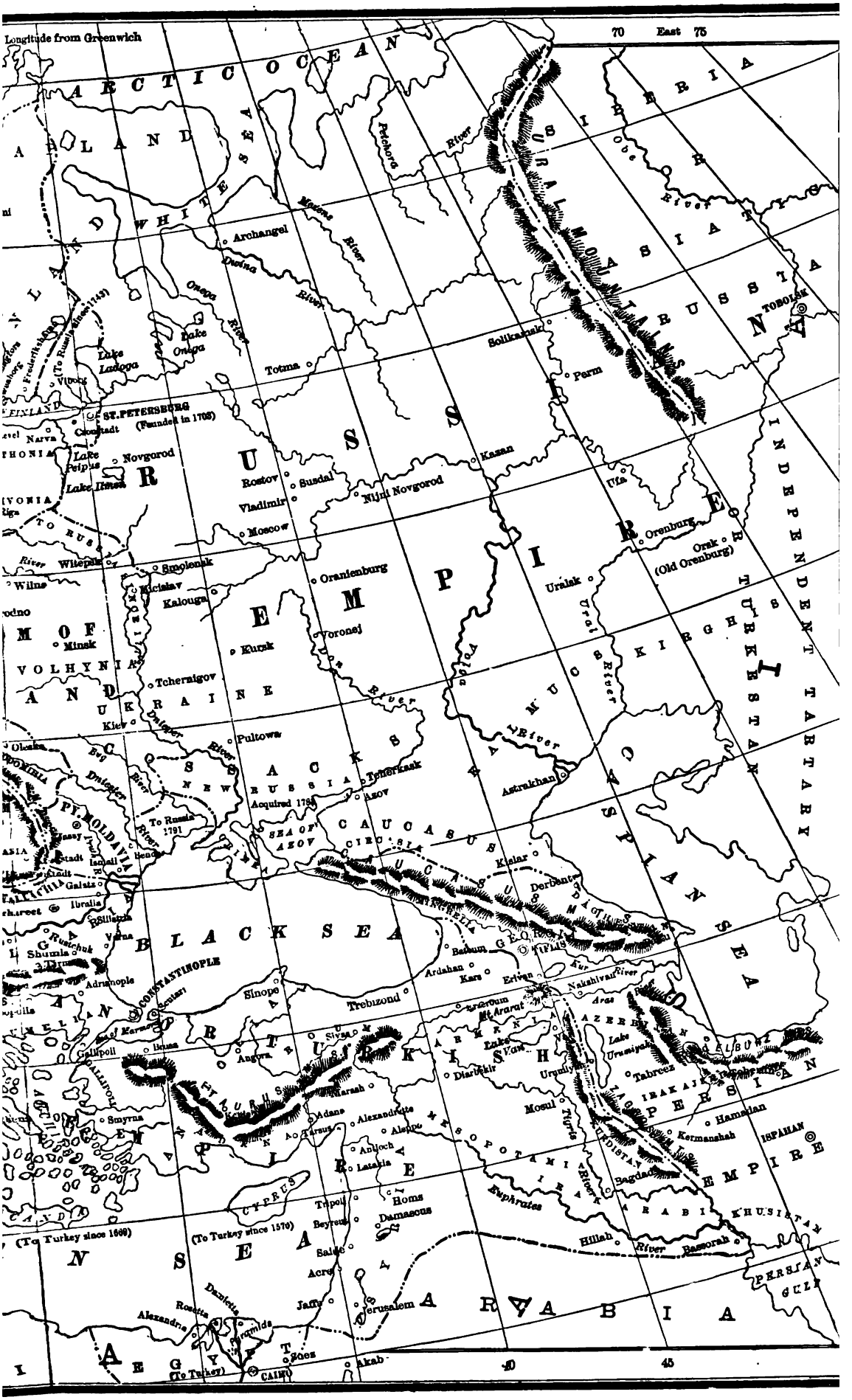
ASTOR LENOX
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

MAP OF
EUROPE
FROM THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR
TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION
(A. D. 1648 – 1789)
By I.S.Clare.
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 100 200 300 400


Longitude from Greenwich
70
East 75
ARCTIC OCEAN
LAND
WHITE SEA
Archangel
Dwina River
Onega River
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
Petchora River
Mezena River
URAL MOUNTAINS
SIBERIA
Obi River
Tobolsk
Solikamsk
Perm
Totma
Vitebsk
ST. PETERSBURG
(Founded in 1703)
Cronstadt
Narva
Lake Peipus
Novgorod
Lake Ilmen
Rostov
Susdal
Vladimir
Moscow
Nijni Novgorod
Kasan
Ufa
Orenburg
Orsk
(Old Orenburg)
Uralsk
Ural River
INDEPENDENT TARTARY
KIEGHIZ TURKESTAN
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
Wilna
Grodno
Minsk
Smolensk
Kaluga
Kursk
Oranienburg
Voronej
Don River
Tchernigov
Kiew
Dnieper River
Pultowa
Dniester River
Bug River
Ochakov
Akerman
Bender
Galatz
Ibrailla
Bessarabia
Varna
Shumla
Adrianople
CONSTANTINOPLE
Gallipoli
Smyrna
Sinope
Trebizond
Angora
Adana
Tarsus
Alexandretta
Aleppo
Antioch
Latakia
Tripoli
Homs
Damascus
Beyrout
Saide
Acre
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Damietta
Rosetta
Alexandria
Pyramids
Cairo
Suez
Akab
Cyprus
Candia
(To Turkey since 1669)
(To Turkey since 1570)
(To Turkey)
MOLDAVIA
VOLHYNIA
UKRAINE
NEW RUSSIA
Acquired 1783
To Russia 1791
COSSACKS
Azov
Taganrog
Astrakhan
Caspian Sea
CIRCASSIA
CAUCASUS MOUNTAINS
Kislar
Derbent
SARMATIAN MOUNTAINS
GEORGIA
Tiflis
Badum
Kars
Erivan
Ardahan
Nakshivan
Ararat
Lake Van
Lake Urumiah
Tabreez
Mosul
Turis
Diarbekir
Orfa
Hamadan
Kermanshah
ISPAHAN
Bagdad
Hillah
Bassorah
Euphrates River
Tigris River
ARABIA
KHUSISTAN
PERSIAN GULF
BLACK SEA
ARMENIA
AZERBIJAN
KURDISTAN
MESOPOTAMIA
SYRIA
EGYPT
Mediterranean Sea
Red Sea
0
45

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I. of Poland, and the Republic of Venice, January 26, 1699.

By the Peace of Carlowitz the Austrian Hapsburgs were left in possession of all Hungary, Transylvania and Slavonia, and part of Croatia; while the Republic of Venice obtained six fortresses in Dalmatia, the isles of St. Maura and Ægina, and the peninsula of the Morea, or Southern Greece, the ancient Peloponnesus; and Poland recovered the city of Kaminiec and the provinces of Podolia and the Ukraine; but the Turks retained the Banat of Temesvar, in Hungary, and the strong fortress of Belgrade, on the Danube. Turkey renounced the tribute which Venice had previously paid to the Sublime Porte for the island of Zante, and the Republic of Ragusa was guaranteed its independence of the Venetian Republic.

Peace was not made between Turkey and Russia for more than three years later, as Sultan Mustapha II. was very reluctant to allow the Czar Peter the Great to retain possession of the sea-port of Azov and thus have a share in the Black Sea navigation. But peace was finally made between Turkey and Russia in July, 1702, by which the Sublime Porte ceded Azov, with eighty miles of the Black Sea coast, to Russia; and Peter the Great soon made that sea-port one of the strongest fortresses in Europe.

SECTION VI.—ENGLAND'S NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

VIRGINIA (A. D. 1607–1776).

THE English founded all their claims to North America upon Cabot's discoveries. As we have already stated, during Queen Elizabeth's reign, the distinguished Sir Walter Raleigh made several unsuccessful efforts to colonize North America; and Queen Elizabeth, in consideration of her unmarried state, named the territory *Virginia*. In 1606 King James I. of England granted the territory between the Potomac and Cape Fear rivers, under the name of *South Virginia*, to an association in London, known as the *London Company*. At the same time the king granted the territory now known as New England, under the name of *North Virginia*, to a company in the West of England, called the *Plymouth Company*.

In 1607 one hundred and five English emigrants, under Captain Christopher Newport, sailed up the beautiful river which they named *James*, in honor of their king; and on the bank of that stream they began a settlement which they named *Jamestown*. This was the first permanent English settlement in America. The settlers suffered greatly from cold, hunger, and the hostilities of the natives, until the famous Captain John Smith assumed the direction of affairs, and, by his skillful management, restored confidence.

Captain Smith explored the country northward to the interior of the present Pennsylvania. According to the well-known story now generally discredited, Smith was taken prisoner by the Indians, whose ruler, Powhatan, determined to put him to death; but Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, interceded for the prisoner, and saved his life; whereupon Smith was released, and permitted to return to Jamestown.

When Captain Smith returned to England, in 1609, the colony at Jamestown ceased to prosper, and was soon reduced by famine from five hundred persons to sixty. The winter and spring of 1610 was long known as "The Starving Time." The remaining settlers were about to leave Virginia, when, in 1611, Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor of the colony, arrived from England, with immigrants and provisions, and the colonists resolved to remain. In 1613 the Indian maiden, Pocahontas, was married to a young Englishman named John Rolfe. She was then taken to England and presented at court.

In 1619 representative government was established in Virginia; and, on the 28th of June of that year, the first legislative assembly in America convened at Jamestown. In 1620 one hundred and fifty white women were brought to Jamestown, and sold to the planters for wives, at the cost of their passage. During the same year (1620) a Dutch vessel loaded with negroes ascended the James river, and sold twenty of them for slaves to the planters at Jamestown. This was the beginning of negro-slavery within the domain of the present United States.

Sir Francis Wyatt, who became governor of the colony in 1621, gave the Virginians a written constitution which allowed them a popular legislative assembly. This was the beginning of the celebrated Virginia *House of Burgesses*. The constitution vested the appointment of governor and council in the London Company. In 1622 the Indians, under the leadership of Opechancanough, Powhatan's brother and successor, massacred three hundred and fifty of the Virginia colonists, and reduced eighty plantations to eight. The whites began a terrible war of revenge against the savages, slaughtered many of them most unmercifully, and drove the remainder into the wilderness.

In 1624 King James I., by an act of high-handed usurpation, dissolved the London company, and, taking away its charter, made Virginia a royal province; but he wisely abstained from interference with the House of Burgesses. In 1641 the staunch royalist, Sir William Berkeley, was appointed governor of Virginia by King Charles I.; and during his administration of nearly forty years the colony rapidly advanced in prosperity. In 1644 another war broke out with the Indians, still governed by Opechancanough; and, after a struggle of two years, the power of the savages was broken, and they ceded large tracts of land to the Virginians.

The Virginians, although democratic, sympathized with the king during the civil war in England. When monarchy was restored in England, in 1660, full power was given to Governor Berkeley to restrict the liberties of the Virginians. Berkeley's tyranny produced a popular rebellion in 1676, headed by the staunch republican, Nathaniel Bacon, who assumed command of five hundred men without the permission of Berkeley, who proclaimed the popular leader a traitor. Bacon drove Berkeley from Jamestown and set the place on fire, and the first town founded by the English in America was reduced to ashes. Soon afterward Bacon died, and with his death ended the rebellion. The rebels were severely punished; and fines, imprisonments, and confiscations of property disgraced the remainder of Berkeley's administration. From the time of the English Revolution of 1688 Virginia was a prosperous and flourishing colony.

Governor Berkeley was opposed to popular enlightenment. Said he to the commissioners sent from England to Virginia in 1671: "Thank God, there are no free schools nor printing-press; and I hope we shall not have these hundred years; for learning has brought disobedience and heresy and sects into the world, and printing has divulged these and libels against the best government."

MASSACHUSETTS (A. D. 1620–1776).

In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, Raleigh's friend, explored the coast of Massachusetts bay, and discovered and named Cape Cod. He also discovered the islands of Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard, and a group which he named the Elizabeth Islands, in honor of his queen. In 1603 and 1606 Martin Pring visited the coast of North Virginia. In 1614 the intrepid Captain John Smith explored the country between Cape Cod and the Penobscot, and named the region *New England*.

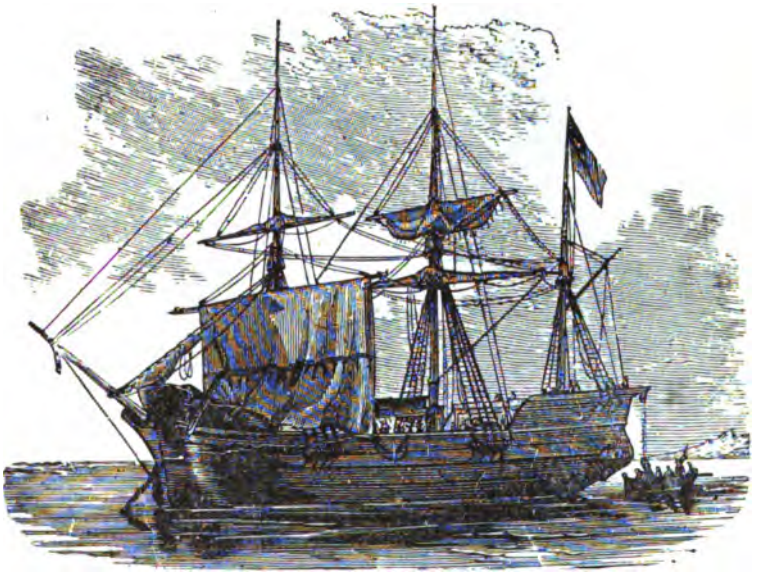
In 1620 the Plymouth Company was dissolved, and a new company was formed, which was called *The Council of Plymouth*, and to which was granted the territory called New England. A few years previous to this a company of English Puritans, who had suffered persecution in their native land, because they did not conform to the

established Anglican Church, settled in Holland. They were led by the Reverend John Robinson. Failing to become reconciled to the customs and habits of the Dutch, these humble Puritans, who felt that they were only pilgrims in this world, resolved to emigrate to the wilds of America, where they might worship God in their own way.

These Puritans in Holland formed a partnership with some London merchants, who furnished them with capital for their enterprise. They returned to England; and in September, 1620, one hundred and one of these pious men and women sailed for New England in a vessel called the *Mayflower*. These *Pilgrim Fathers*, as they are called, landed on a rock on the coast of Massachusetts bay, on the 21st of December, 1620. They named the place of landing *Plymouth*, and the town which they founded is the oldest in New England. In the cabin of the Mayflower, just before landing, they had adopted a written constitution of government, and chosen John Carver for their governor. Several months after their landing (March 21, 1621) Governor Carver made a treaty of friendship with Massasoit, the sachem of the Wampanoag Indians. A few days after this treaty Governor Carver died, and William Bradford became governor of the colony. Many of the settlers had died during the winter. Other emigrants came. In 1627 the Plymouth colonists purchased the interests of the London merchants, and became the sole proprietors of the country in which they had established themselves; and in 1634 they abolished their pure democracy, and adopted the more convenient form of representative government.

In 1628 John Endicott and one hundred Puritan emigrants founded Salem. They had been sent from England by a company which the following year (1629) was incorporated *The Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England*. In the same year the Company assigned the charter and government to the colonists. During 1629 other immigrants arrived and settled Charlestown.

In 1630 a large number of Puritans from England arrived at Salem, with John Winthrop as governor. Some of them made settlements at Dorchester, Roxbury, Watertown, Cambridge and Lynn; while Winthrop and others settled Boston, which became the capital of the Massachusetts Bay colony and the future metropolis of New England. In 1634 representative government was established in the colony of Massachusetts Bay.

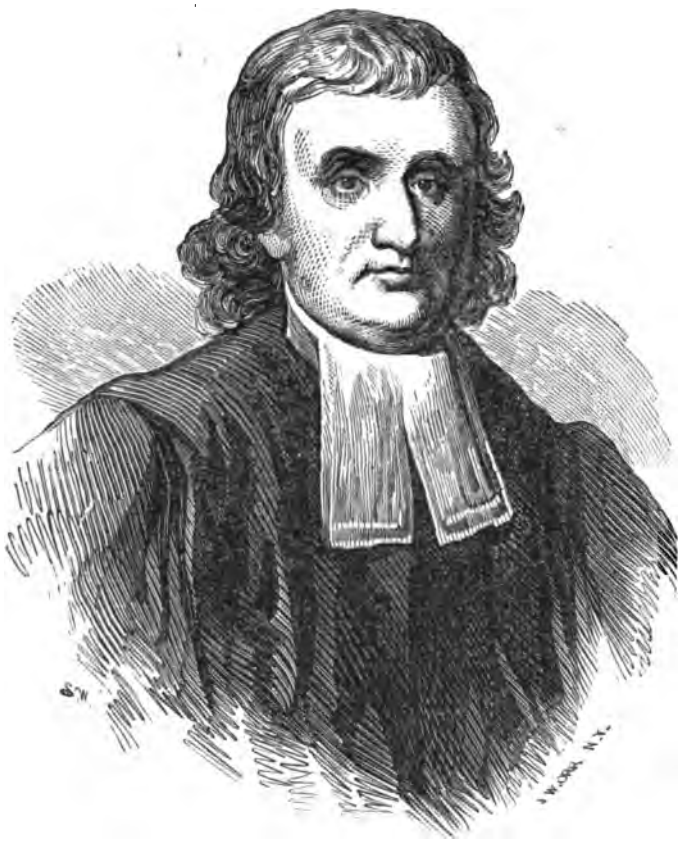


THE MAYFLOWER.

The Puritans, who had just suffered so much persecution in England for their religious opinions, were no sooner settled in New England than they became persecutors themselves, and allowed no toleration for difference of opinion in religious or civil matters. In 1635 Roger Williams, a Puritan minister of the gospel, was banished from the Massachusetts Bay colony, because he advocated toleration for all religious beliefs. Williams founded the colony

of Rhode Island the next year, 1636. Religious dissensions still disturbed the Massachusetts Bay Colony; and in 1637 Mrs. Ann Hutchinson and the Rev. John Wheelwright, supporters of Williams, were banished.

In 1643 the New England colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut and New Haven united in a confederacy for mutual protection against the French, the Dutch and the Indians. This union,



JOHN WINTHROP.

called *The United Colonies of New England*, lasted more than forty years, when mutual jealousies caused its dissolution.

The year 1656 is noted in the history of the Massachusetts Bay colony for a most cruel persecution of Quakers who sought an asylum in that colony. Some were whipped, others were imprisoned, and many were put to death. Finally a milder spirit prevailed, and persecution ceased.

The New Englanders, unlike the Virginians, sympathized with the enemies of the king during the civil war in England. When monarchy was restored in the mother country, in 1660, an attempt was made to restrict the liberties of the people of New England; and a royal commission was appointed to govern the colony of Massachusetts Bay; but this attempt at usurpation encountered so much popular resistance that it was relinquished, and republicanism was triumphant.

In 1675 the Wampanoag prince, Metacomet, commonly known as *King Philip*, the son and successor of the good Massasoit, commenced a war of extermination against the white people of New England. Philip's first attack was made at Swanzey, on Sunday, July 4, 1675, and many of the whites were massacred. The whites were soon aroused, and seized their arms, while the savages desolated the English settlements on the Connecticut river. King Philip was repulsed in an attack upon Hatfield, in October, 1675; after which he was sheltered by the Narragansets of Rhode Island. A force of fifteen hundred New Englanders resented the hostile conduct of the Narragansets by applying the torch to their wigwams; and hundreds of Indian men, women and children perished in the flames, and a thousand of their warriors were killed or captured. The following year (1676) the Indians were subjugated; and their great leader, King Philip, was shot by an Indian who was friendly to the whites. Thus ended *King Philip's War*.

After James II. became King of England, in 1685, he annulled the charter of the Massachusetts Bay colony, and appointed the infamous Sir Edmund Andros to rule all New England as Governor-General. Andros governed tyrannically for two years; but

when, in 1689, news reached Boston of the Revolution in England which drove King James II. from the throne, the Bostonians seized and imprisoned Andros, and sent him to England on a just charge of maladministration in office; and the New England colonies resumed their charters.

In 1692 the people of Massachusetts Bay were afflicted with a great delusion, known as the *Salem Witchcraft*. A general belief in sorcery prevailed; many unfortunate persons were accused of practicing witchcraft; and, during a period of six months, about twenty persons were put to death, and many others were imprisoned. This frightful delusion passed away as suddenly as it had appeared.

In 1692 King William III. of England united the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay, and the English settlements in Maine and New Brunswick, as one royal province under the name of Massachusetts, and appointed Sir William Phipps governor.

NEW YORK (A. D. 1623–1776).

In 1609 Henry Hudson, an English navigator, then in the service of the Dutch East India Company, explored the American coast from Chesapeake bay to Long Island Sound, and sailed up the beautiful river which bears his name, as far as the site of Albany. On this account the Dutch claimed the territory drained by that stream. On a subsequent voyage Hudson discovered the large bay which bears his name, in British America; and, while on his home voyage, his crew became mutinous and sent Hudson and his son in a boat adrift on the ice, and they were no more heard of.

In 1614 the Dutch erected huts on Manhattan Island, and in the same year they also built a fort near the site of Albany. In 1621 the States-General of Holland granted great privileges of colonization to a company of Amsterdam merchants who were incorporated the *Dutch West India Company*. This company claimed the territory between Cape Henlopen and the Connecticut river, and named it *New Netherland*.

In 1623 permanent Dutch settlements were made at New Amsterdam, on Manhattan Island, and at Fort Orange, on the site of Albany. Immigrants from Holland came over into the colony in large numbers. The first governor of New Netherland was Peter Minuit (1626–1633), and the second was Wouter Van Twiller (1633–1638).

The third governor of New Netherland was the haughty, rapacious and despotic Sir William Kieft, who vainly tried to suppress the growth of democracy among the New Netherlanders, and whose turbulent spirit soon involved him in trouble with the Swedes on the Delaware, the English on the Connecticut, the Indians all around him, and the colonists at his door. With cruel treachery, Kieft attacked the Indians at Hoboken; and hostilities were carried on with the greatest ferocity for two years, when the Indians were subdued, and their power and spirit was broken. In 1647 the quarrelsome Kieft was recalled; and on his way to Europe his vessel was wrecked, and the infamous governor perished.

The fourth and last governor of New Netherland was the firm and energetic Peter Stuyvesant, who endeavored, as much as prudence would permit, to check the growing spirit of republicanism among the New Netherland people, who grew bolder by degrees, and who finally denied the right of taxation without representation, and showed an inclination to bear English rule for the sake of enjoying English liberty. In 1655 Governor Stuyvesant conquered the Swedish settlements on the Delaware, and annexed New Sweden to New Netherland.

In 1664 King Charles II. of England granted to his brother James, Duke of York and Albany, all the territory embraced by the Dutch colony of New Netherland. The Duke sent a small naval force under Colonel Richard Nicolls to take possession of New Netherland, which was done in September of the same year, 1664. The people of New Amsterdam, tired of Stuyvesant's rigor, and hoping to enjoy greater political freedom under English rule, made no resistance; and Stuyvesant was obliged to surrender the

place to Nicolls. The name *New York* was given to New Amsterdam, as well as to the province of New Netherland; and Fort Orange was named *Albany*.

Colonel Nicolls was the first governor of the English province of New York. The Dutch colonists were disappointed in their hopes of enjoying greater political liberty under English rule; as Nicolls, and his successor, Francis Lovelace, governed most despotically. In 1673, during a war between England and Holland, a Dutch squadron captured the city of New York; but it was restored to the English by a treaty of peace the next year (1674), and Andros became governor.

In 1683 the Duke of York granted the people of New York a *Charter of Liberties*, allowing them a popular assembly; but when he became King of England, in 1685, with the title of James II., he revoked the privileges which he had granted, and made the tyrant Andros governor of New York a second time. When news reached New York of the dethronement of James II. in England and the imprisonment of Andros in Boston, Jacob Leisler, a leading merchant, with the sanction of the people of New York, assumed the office of governor, until the arrival of Colonel Henry Sloughter, the new royal governor, in 1691, when Leisler and his son-in-law Milborne were tried and executed for high-treason.

From the time of Leisler's death the people of New York resisted the oppression of the royal governors sent to rule them, and republicanism constantly gained strength. In 1734 William Cosby, then governor of the province, caused John Peter Zenger, the editor of the democratic newspaper in New York, to be arrested on a charge of libel. Zenger was tried and acquitted by a jury; and the magistrates of New York city made a present to his counsel, Andrew Hamilton of Philadelphia, for his noble vindication of the freedom of the press.

NEW HAMPSHIRE (A. D. 1629–1776).

In 1622 the territory between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers was granted to Sir Ferdinand Gorges and John Mason, under the name of *Laconia*. The proprietors sent out emigrants to settle in Laconia, and as early as 1622 fishing stations were established on the sites of Portsmouth and Dover. In 1629 the Reverend John Wheelwright and others founded the town of Exeter.

In 1629 John Mason became sole proprietor of Laconia, and named the region *New Hampshire*, after Hampshire county in England. Mason settled at Portsmouth; and other settlements were made as far as Machias, in Maine. In 1641 New Hampshire was united with the Massachusetts Bay colony; but the two colonies were again separated in 1679, when New Hampshire became a royal province. In 1699 New Hampshire was reunited with Massachusetts under the same governor, but a final separation took place in 1741.

MARYLAND (A. D. 1634–1776).

In 1622 William Clayborne erected a trading-house on Kent Island. King Charles I. of England granted the territory on both sides of Chesapeake bay, under the name of *Maryland*, to Cecil Calvert, Lord Baltimore, an English Roman Catholic nobleman, who desired to find a refuge in America for persecuted Roman Catholics. In 1634 nearly two hundred English Roman Catholics, with Leonard Calvert, Cecil's brother, as their governor, formed a settlement at St. Mary's, near the mouth of the Potomac river. The assembly met at St. Mary's in 1635, and adopted a liberal form of government for the Maryland colony.

In 1635 William Clayborne, who refused to recognize Lord Baltimore's authority, commenced a rebellion against the Governor of Maryland; but he was defeated and compelled to flee from the province. In 1645 Clayborne returned and began another rebellion; and for a time the rebels held the reins of power, and Governor Calvert was obliged to flee to Virginia; but the rebellion was suppressed in 1646, and the governor returned to Maryland and resumed his authority.

In 1649 the Maryland assembly passed the *Toleration Act*, which granted religious freedom to all sects in Maryland; and this induced many Protestants who were persecuted elsewhere to settle in this Roman Catholic province. At length the influx of Protestants was so great that they outnumbered the Catholics; and after obtaining a majority in the assembly they questioned the rights of the proprietor, and, with the meanest ingratitude, they disfranchised the Catholics and declared them not entitled to the protection of the laws. This outrageous proceeding led to a civil war in Maryland between the Catholics and the Protestants, which ended in the defeat of the Catholics and the overthrow of the proprietary government; but when monarchy was restored in England, in 1660, Lord Baltimore recovered his rights.

The Maryland colony now prospered until 1689, when a Protestant insurrection overthrew the proprietary government. In 1691 King William III. of England deprived Lord Baltimore of his rights, made Maryland a royal province, and established the Church of England in the colony; and Roman Catholics were disfranchised in a province which they had founded. In 1716 Maryland was restored to the heirs of Lord Baltimore, and it remained a proprietary province until the Revolution of 1775.

CONNECTICUT (A. D. 1635–1776).

In 1614 Adrian Block, a Dutch navigator, discovered the Connecticut river, and sailed up that stream as far as the site of Hartford. In 1630 the Council of Plymouth granted the soil of Connecticut to the Earl of Warwick, who, the following year, granted it to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brooke, and others.

In 1633 the Dutch erected a fort at the site of Hartford, and in the same year the English under Captain Holmes established a trading-house at the site of Windsor. In 1635 emigrants from Boston settled Windsor and Wethersfield; and in 1636 other emigrants from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, led by the Reverend Thomas Hooker, founded Hartford. In 1635 John Winthrop, son of the governor of the Massachusetts Bay colony, led a company of emigrants to the mouth of the Connecticut river, where they formed a settlement, which, in honor of Lord Say and Seal and Lord Brooke, they named *Saybrook*.

In 1637 a frightful war broke out between the Connecticut settlers and the Pequod Indians, the Mohegan and Narraganset tribes uniting with the whites; and in a furious battle at the Mystic river the savages were defeated by Captain John Mason, after their fort had been set on fire, and the tribe of the Pequods was exterminated, and their chief, Sassacus, fled to the Mohawks, who put him to death. In 1638 New Haven was founded by emigrants from England, led by the Reverend John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton; and they resolved to be governed in civil matters according to the rules and principles of the Bible.

In 1639 the settlers at Hartford, Windsor and Wethersfield adopted a liberal constitution of government for the Connecticut colony. In 1644 the Saybrook settlement was united with Connecticut; and in 1665 the Connecticut and New Haven colonies were united into one colony, called *Connecticut*, under a charter granted to the colonists by King Charles II. three years before.

In 1675 Sir Edmund Andros, then Governor of New York, attempted to extend his authority over Connecticut; and for this purpose he went to Saybrook with a small naval force; but he was so firmly resisted that he relinquished the attempt.

In 1687 Andros, as Governor-General of all New England, succeeded in depriving all the New England colonies, excepting Connecticut, of their charters. He went to Hartford to seize the Connecticut charter; and while the assembly was in session in the evening the charter was laid on the table; but just as Andros attempted to take it the lights were suddenly extinguished, and Captain Wadsworth carried away the charter and hid it in the hollow of an oak tree, which thenceforth was called the *Charter Oak*. Andros, however, governed Connecticut until he was imprisoned in Boston,

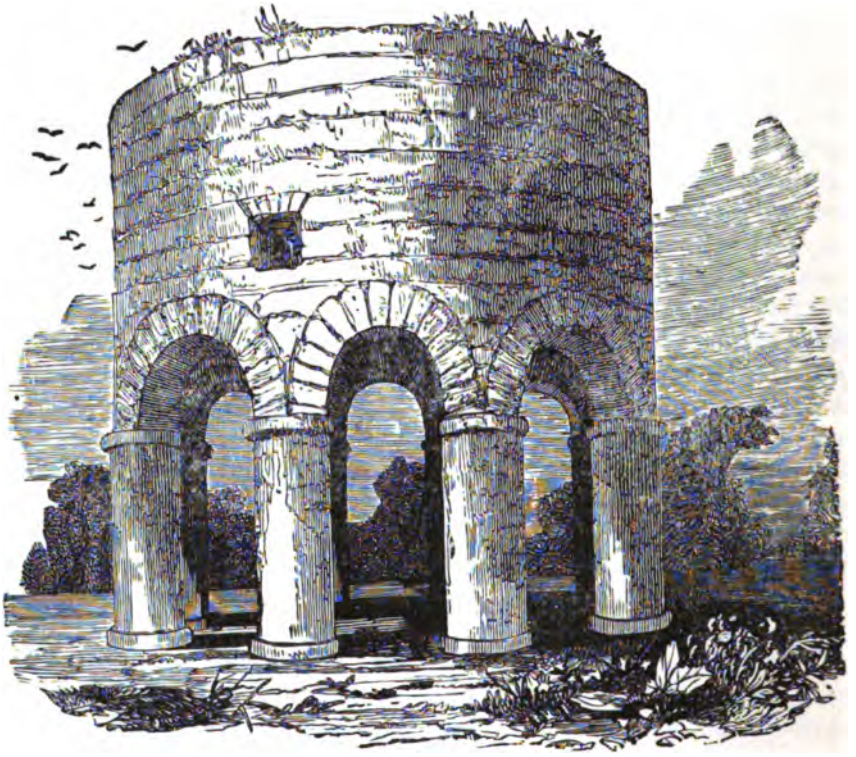
in 1689, when the Connecticut charter was taken from its hiding-place.

In 1693 Governor Fletcher of New York attempted to bring Connecticut under his jurisdiction, and for that purpose he went to Hartford, where he assembled the Connecticut militia. When Fletcher proceeded to read his commission, Captain Wadsworth, the commander of the militia, commanded the drums to be beaten. "Silence," shouted Fletcher, whereupon Wadsworth stepped up and said: "Sir! if they are interrupted again, I will make the sun shine through you in a moment!" Fletcher returned to New York in great anger. From this time Connecticut was a prosperous colony.

RHODE ISLAND (A. D. 1636–1776).

The first settlement in Rhode Island was made on the Pawtucket river by William Blackstone, a Puritan minister. When Roger Williams was banished from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, in 1635, he traveled through the wilderness in the midst of winter; and in 1636 he founded a settlement on Narragansett bay, which, with pious feelings, he named *Providence*. This was the beginning of the Rhode Island colony, which became an asylum for persecuted Christians of all sects.

In 1638 William Coddington, a Nonconformist minister, and others who were banished from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, founded Portsmouth, on the island which they named *Rhode Island;* and in 1639 the settlement of Newport was commenced.



ANCIENT TOWER AT NEWPORT.

In 1644 Roger Williams, who had gone to England for that purpose, obtained from the Long Parliament a liberal charter, under which *the Providence and Rhode Island Plantations* were united as one province; and in 1647 a colonial convention, assembled at Portsmouth, adopted a democratic form of government and established the principles of perfect religious freedom in Rhode Island.

In 1663 King Charles II. of England granted to the Rhode Island and Providence Plantations a charter which left the colo-

nists in the full enjoyment of perfect civil and religious freedom. This charter was suspended by the tyrant Andros in 1687; but when he was imprisoned in Boston, in 1689, it was resumed, and remained in full force as the instrument of government of the commonwealth until 1842, when a State constitution was adopted.

DELAWARE (A. D. 1638–1776).

Under the auspices of the Swedish West India Company, a company of Swedish emigrants, under Peter Minuit, the first Governor of New Netherland, made a settlement on Christiana Creek, near the site of Wilmington, in the present State of Delaware, in 1638, and named the territory *New Sweden*. Swedish settlements were also made on the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, in the present Pennsylvania.

The Dutch at New Amsterdam claimed the territory of New Sweden; and in 1655 Governor Stuyvesant of New Netherland conquered the Swedish settlements on the Delaware, and annexed New Sweden to New Netherland. The domain of New Sweden was granted to William Penn in 1682, and it became a part of Pennsylvania. The territory now known as Delaware became a separate province in 1702, with a legislature of its own; but it was united with Pennsylvania under one governor until 1776, when Delaware became an independent State.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA (A. D. 1663–1776).

Between the years 1640 and 1650 emigrants from Virginia settled near the mouth of the Chowan river. In 1663 King Charles II. of England granted to the Earl of Clarendon and seven associates the extensive region beween Virginia and Florida, under the general name of *Carolina*.

In 1663 a number of emigrants from Virginia, with William Drummond as governor, founded Edenton, on the Chowan river. This settlement was the *Albemarle County Colony*. A representative government was adopted, and the first legislative assembly in Carolina convened at Edenton in 1668. In 1665 some planters from the Barbadoes Islands, with Sir John Yeamans as governor, established on the Cape Fear River a settlement known as the *Clarendon County Colony*. This colony was broken up several years afterward.

Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, and the philosopher John Locke prepared a constitution of government for the Carolinas. This instrument, known as the *Fundamental Constitutions*, or the *Grand Model*, was extremely aristocratic in spirit, and utterly repugnant to the wishes of the freedom-loving settlers of the Carolinas. It could never be enforced, as every attempt to do so produced a rebellion; and after a struggle of a quarter of a century between the colonists and the proprietors, this absurd scheme of government was finally abandoned by the proprietors in 1695, and the cause of republicanism was triumphant in Carolina.

The attempt to enforce the Fundamental Constitutions in the Albemarle Colony (North Carolina) produced a rebellion, which resulted in the imprisonment of the governor, and the temporary subversion of the proprietary government. In 1683 Seth Sothel, one of the proprietors, became Governor of North Carolina; but, after a tyrannical and corrupt administration of five years, he was banished from the colony. In 1695 the good Quaker, John Archdale, became governor of both the Carolinas; and under his administration both colonies greatly prospered.

Quakers, Huguenots and German Protestants settled in North Carolina. In 1711 a frightful war broke out between the North Carolina settlers and the Tuscarora Indians. The Indians massacred many of the German settlers, but the Tuscaroras were finally subdued. Twelve hundred of them were captured; and the remainder joined the Five Nations in New York, thus forming the league of the *Six Nations*.

In 1670 a company of emigrants from England, with William Sayle as their governor, settled Old Charleston, on the Ashley river. This is known as the *Carteret County Colony;* so called in honor of Sir George

Carteret, one of the proprietors of the Carolinas. In 1680 the inhabitants of Old Charleston removed to a point between the Ashley and Cooper rivers, where they laid the foundations of the present city of Charleston. A representative government was established, and the first legislative assembly in the Carteret Colony convened at Charleston in 1682.

Dutch emigrants, Puritans and Huguenots settled in the Carteret Colony (South Carolina). An effort to enforce the Fundamental Constitutions led to a rebellion in South Carolina, which resulted in the banishment of the governor, James Colleton. In 1690 the famous Seth Sothel came to South Carolina, of which colony he became governor; but, after oppressing and plundering the colonists for two years, he was banished. Under the wise administration of John Archdale prosperity attended the colony.

In 1702 hostilities commenced between the South Carolinians and the Spaniards of Florida. South Carolina sent an unsuccessful expedition against the Spaniards; but the Apalachian Indians, the allies of the Spaniards, were subjugated; eight hundred of the Apalachians being captured, and their country taken possession of. In 1706 a combined French and Spanish fleet failed in an attack upon Charleston. In 1715 the South Carolina colonists became involved in a dangerous war with the Yamasee Indians. Governor Craven with twelve hundred men subdued the Yamasees, and drove them into Florida.

In 1719 the people of South Carolina rebelled against the proprietary government; and in 1729 the proprietors, wearied of the perpetual opposition, surrendered their claims to the crown, whereupon North and South Carolina became distinct royal provinces, and so remained until the great Revolution of 1775, which swept away feudalism and royalty.

NEW JERSEY (A. D. 1664–1776).

The Dutch established a trading-post at Bergen in 1618, and another at Fort Nassau, below the site of Camden, in 1623. The Swedes and Finns also made settlements on the Delaware. In 1664, when New Netherland was conquered by the English, King Charles II. of England granted the territory between the Hudson and Delaware rivers to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, and named the province *New Jersey;* and in the same year (1664) some English Puritans settled Elizabeth. Philip Carteret, brother of Sir George, was made governor; and representative government was established. When, in 1670, the proprietors of New Jersey demanded the payment of quit-rents, the colonists rose in rebellion, and drove the governor from the colony.

In 1674 Lord Berkeley sold his interest in New Jersey to some Quakers, who founded Salem; and in 1676 the province was divided, the Quakers obtaining West Jersey, and Carteret receiving East Jersey. In 1682 William Penn and other Quakers purchased East Jersey from Carteret's heirs, and made Robert Barclay governor.

In 1688 King James II. made the tyrant Andros governor of the Jerseys, from which time great confusion prevailed until 1702, when East and West Jersey were united as one royal province, and placed under the Governor of New York, but having its own legislature. In 1738 New Jersey was entirely separated from New York, and Lewis Morris became governor.

PENNSYLVANIA (A. D. 1682–1776).

In 1643 the Swedes made a settlement on Tinicum Island, below the site of Philadelphia. In 1677 Swedish settlements were made on the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers. In 1681 King Charles II. of England granted an immense territory west of the Delaware river to William Penn, a Quaker, who desired to secure an asylum for the persecuted sect to which he belonged. The province was named *Pennsylvania*, which signifies "Penn's woods." In 1682 the territory of the present State of Delaware was added to Penn's grant. In 1682 a large company of Quakers from England arrived in Pennsylvania, founded the town of Chester, the oldest English settlement in the col-

ony, and organized a liberal form of government.

In the fall of 1682 William Penn arrived in Pennsylvania, and was joyfully received by the Swedes and the English Quakers. He met the assembly of Pennsylvania at Chester, when he established a permanent government for the colony. Under a large elm tree, on the site of Philadelphia, Penn made a treaty of friendship with the Indians, who were treated with the greatest kindness by the Quakers. The Indians who were present exclaimed: "We will live in peace with William Penn and his children as long as the sun and the moon shall endure!" They were true to their word. Not a drop of Quaker blood was ever shed by an Indian. This treaty was never sworn to and never broken.

WILLIAM PENN.

The same year (1682) Penn laid out a capital for his new province between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, and named the place *Philadelphia*, which means "city of brotherly love." Within a year a hundred houses were built. In 1683 the colonial assembly met at Philadelphia and adopted a *Charter of Liberties*.

In 1684 William Penn returned to England; and in 1689 he was deprived of his province by King William III., who suspected Penn of being disloyal to his government. Penn's province was restored to him in 1694, and in 1699 he visited Pennsylvania a second time. He granted the colonists greater privileges, and allowed Delaware to have a separate legislature. Both colonies had the same governor until the American Revolution. William Penn died in London in 1718.

His just and humane policy toward the Indians secured their love and esteem, and kept the colony free from Indian wars for three-quarters of a century. Early in the eighteenth century there was a large emigration of Germans and Swiss into Pennsylvania; and their descendants still retain the prominent characteristics of their thrifty ancestors.

The boundary line between Pennsylvania and Maryland, which had long been a subject of dispute, was settled as at present, in 1767, by George Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, surveyors appointed for the purpose by the King of England; and the line established by them is still called *Mason's and Dixon's Line*. Pennsylvania was owned by Penn's heirs until 1776, when their claims were purchased by the colonists and the province became an independent commonwealth.

GEORGIA (A. D. 1733–1776).

Georgia was not settled until the eighteenth century. In 1743 King George II. of England granted to the philanthropic James Edward Oglethorpe, a member of the English Parliament, and other benevolent individuals, "in trust for the poor," all the territory between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. Oglethorpe's plan was to offer an asylum in America to virtuous persons imprisoned for debt, and to other poor. Near the close of 1732 one hundred and twenty of these unfortunate persons sailed from England, with Oglethorpe as their governor; and in February, 1733, they arrived in America and founded the city of Savannah. Oglethorpe met fifty Indian chiefs, with the Creek sachem, Tomochichi, at their head, and concluded a friendly treaty with them, obtaining a large tract of

territory, which was named *Georgia*, in honor of King George II.

In 1739 a war broke out between England and Spain; and in 1740 Oglethorpe, with two thousand Georgians, invaded the Spanish province of Florida; but after an unsuccessful siege of St. Augustine he returned to Georgia. In 1742 the Spaniards invaded Georgia, but they were defeated and driven back. Oglethorpe left Georgia forever in 1743; and in 1752 the trustees of the colony, wearied of their troublesome charge, sold their interests to the crown,

JAMES EDWARD OGLETHORPE.

whereupon Georgia became a royal province, and so continued until 1776, when it became an independent State.

A RETROSPECT.

England's thirteen colonies on the Atlantic coast of North America rapidly increased in population. The great body of the colonists were of English descent, though there was a mixture of different European nationalities. The New England colonies, and Maryland and Virginia, were wholly English. The people of New York and New Jersey were English and Dutch; those of Pennsylvania, English, Scotch-Irish, Welsh, Germans and Swiss; those of Delaware, English and Swedish; those of the Carolinas, English, Dutch, Germans and Scotch-Irish; and those of Georgia, English and Scotch-Irish.

Most of the colonists of New England, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and many in the Carolinas, as we have seen, were religious exiles, who settled in the New World to seek a refuge from religious persecution. The Puritans of Massachusetts, who sought refuge in America against religious persecution, themselves persecuted those who did not agree with them. They were remarkable for their austerity. Their laws and customs were rigid, and frivolous amusements were not tolerated; while education was fostered, and habits of reading were encouraged. The people of New England were Puritans; the Church of England prevailed in New York, Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia; the Quakers were chiefly found in New Jersey, Penn-

sylvania and Delaware; and the Roman Catholics were most numerous in Maryland.

Education received early and special attention in the colonies, especially in New England. As early as 1621 schools for the education of both white and Indian children were established in Virginia; and in 1692 William and Mary College, named after King William III. and his wife Mary II., was established at Williamsburg, Virginia. The Dutch Reformed Church established a school at New Amsterdam in 1633. Harvard College at Cambridge, Massachusetts, was founded in 1637, and named after the Rev. John Harvard. Yale College, in Connecticut, was established at Saybrook in 1701, and was named after Elihu Yale, President of the English East India Company, one of its most liberal benefactors; and in 1717 it was removed to New Haven. The College of New Jersey at Princeton was incorporated in 1738; and its third president was the distinguished divine and metaphysician, Jonathan Edwards.

Three forms of government prevailed among the Anglo-American colonists—charter, proprietary and royal. The charter governments gave the supreme power to the people, who elected their governors, as well as their legislative assemblies. The proprietary colonies were owned by individuals, or companies, who appointed the governors, but allowed the people to elect their legislative assemblies. The royal provinces were owned and controlled wholly by the king, who appointed the governors, but allowed the people to choose their own legislative assemblies. It will thus be seen that all the colonies had their popular legislative assemblies. At the opening of the American Revolution, in 1775, the charter governments existed in Rhode Island and Connecticut; the proprietary colonies were Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland; and the rest of the colonies were royal provinces.

Most of the colonies had to contend against Indian hostilities, and most of the colonists in all the provinces resisted every royal and proprietary encroachment upon their rights. Religious and civil dissensions at times disturbed some of them; as in the case of Massachusetts, Maryland, Virginia and the Carolinas. New England and New York had to contend against the hostilities of the French from Canada, while the Carolinas and Georgia had to confront the Spaniards of Florida.

Though the colonists were of different European nationalities, a common bond of interest knit all the colonies together; their democratic institutions tended to educate them for self-government; the colonists were actuated by a common desire for the greatest civil, political and religious freedom; and all the colonies were semi-republican and semi-independent from the beginning. Negro-slavery became fixed in the Southern colonies. The colonists, whose pursuits were chiefly agricultural, prospered wonderfully; and when the American Revolution broke out, in 1775, the Anglo-American colonies had a population of three millions.

SECTION VII.—FRENCH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA.

WHILE the English were colonizing the Atlantic coast of North America, from New England to Georgia, the French were exploring and settling the valley of the St. Lawrence, the shores of the Great Lakes, and the valley of the Mississippi. In 1605 the Huguenot De Monts founded the first permanent French settlement in North America, at Port Royal, now Annapolis, in Nova Scotia; giving the territory, now known as Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, the name of *Acadia*.

In 1608 Samuel Champlain, a Frenchman, founded the city of Quebec, on the St. Lawrence river; and in the following year, 1609,

he discovered the beautiful lake, between the present States of Vermont and New York, which bears his name. Champlain and his followers allied themselves with the Huron and Algonquin Indians, and defeated their foes, the Five Nations of New York. Thenceforth the Five Nations were the firm friends of the English and the bitter enemies of the French.

In 1679 James Marquette, a French Jesuit, and Louis Joliet, a French Canadian, entered the Mississippi river from the Wisconsin, and, in two birch-bark canoes, sailed down the great river to a point below the mouth of the Arkansas. In 1682 Robert de La Salle, a French Canadian officer, after exploring the shores of the Great Lakes, entered the Mississippi from the Illinois, and sailed up the mighty stream almost to its source, and then down to its mouth, and, naming the entire Mississippi valley *Louisiana*, in honor of his king, Louis XIV., claimed that extensive and fertile region for France.

In the latter part of the seventeenth century, and in the beginning of the eighteenth, the French made settlements on the banks of the Mississippi river, on the shores of the Great Lakes, and on the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. Kaskaskia, in the present State of Illinois, was founded in 1683; Detroit, in Michigan, in 1701; and Vincennes, in Indiana, in 1705. In 1699 a company of French colonists, headed by Lemoine d'Iberville, a French Canadian, settled Biloxi, in the present State of Mississippi; and in 1702 most of the settlers of Biloxi founded the city of Mobile, in the present Alabama.

In 1712 Louisiana was leased for a stated period to Anthony Crozat, a wealthy French merchant, under whose auspices was built Fort Rosalie—the beginning of the present city of Natchez, in Mississippi. In 1767 Crozat relinquished his lease; and Louisiana was for fifteen years under the control of the Mississippi Company, which the Scotchman John Law had organized in France. Bienville, the governor sent to Louisiana by this Company, founded New Orleans in 1718.

In 1729 the Natchez Indians, exasperated at the threatened encroachments of the French, fell upon the French settlement at Fort Rosalie, massacred the men and carried the women into captivity. In revenge for this outrage, a body of French troops almost exterminated the Natchez the following year, 1730. A few years later the French made two unsuccessful attempts to subjugate the warlike Chickasaws, another powerful Indian tribe. The French built a chain of forts between Montreal and New Orleans, the most important of which were Detroit, erected in 1701; Niagara, in 1726; and Crown Point, in 1730.

SECTION VIII.—PERSIA, INDIA AND CHINA.

PERSIA.

AFTER the death of Shah Abbas the Great, in 1628, Persia was ruled by a series of imbecile tyrants — SHAH SUFFEE I. (1628–1641), ABBAS II. (1641–1666), and SHAH SUFFEE II. (1666–1694)—whose reigns are almost a blank in the history of that Oriental monarchy. The reign of the unfortunate HUSSEIN (1694–1722) will be more fully considered in a subsequent section of this work.

THE MOGUL EMPIRE IN INDIA.

Upon the death of Akbar, in 1605, his son Selim ascended the throne of the Mogul Empire in India, assuming the title of JEHANGHIRE, meaning "Lord of the World." The Mogul nobles attempted to place Jehanghire's son upon the throne; but the result was the execution of many of the nobles, and the confinement of the young prince. One of Jehanghire's first acts involved the remainder of his life in remorse. Before his accession he had fallen deeply

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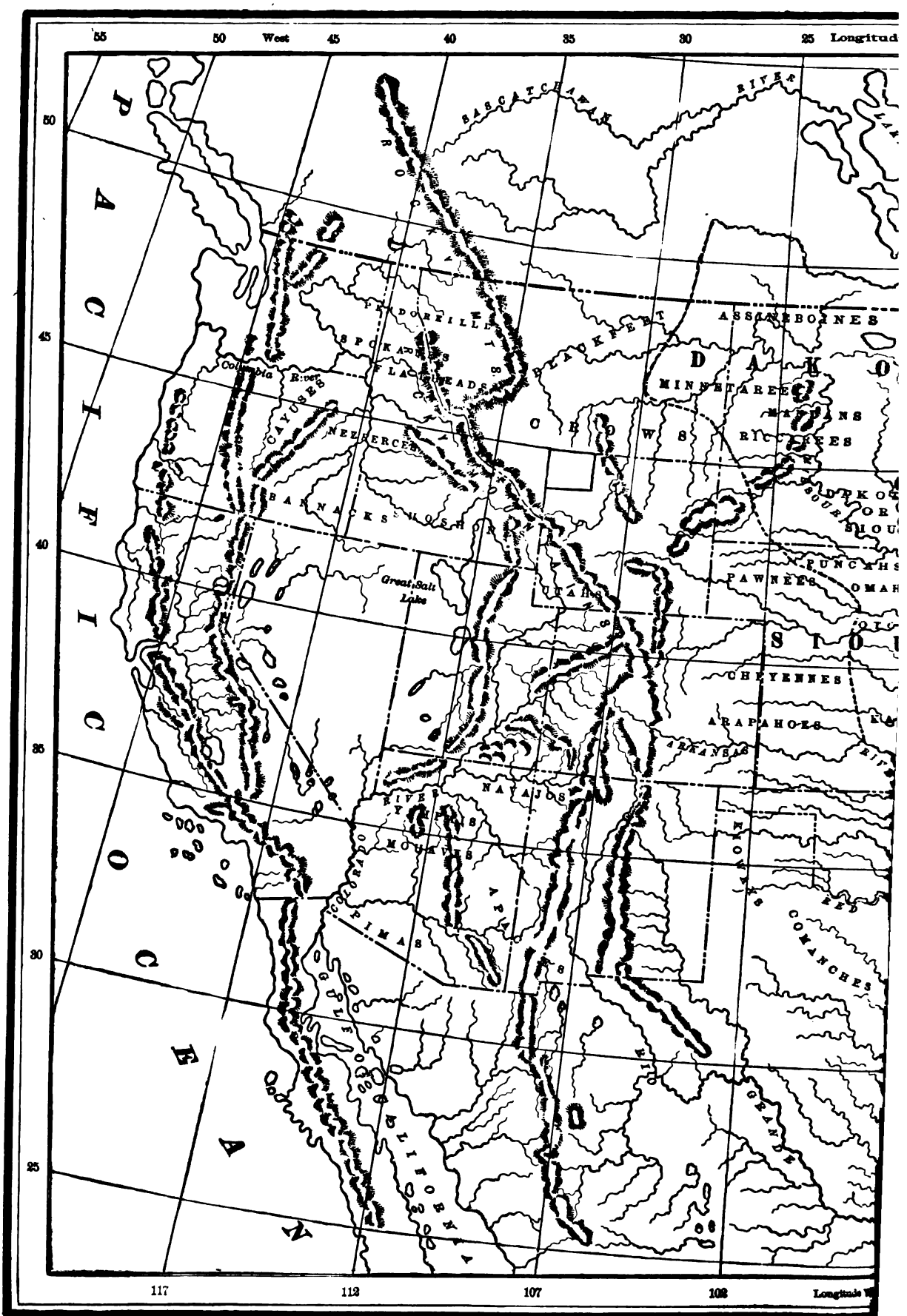

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SASCATCHAWAN
RIVER
ROCKY MTS
PEDDOREILLES
SPOKANES
FLATHEADS
BLACKFEET
ASSINEBOINES
DAKO
MINNETAREES
MANDANS
RICCAREES
CROWS
Columbia River
CAYUSES
NEZPERCES
BANNACKS
SHOSHONES
Great Salt Lake
UTAHS
PAWNEES
PUNCAHS
OMAH
SIOU
CHEYENNES
ARAPAHOES
ARKANSAS
NAVAJOS
YAMPAIS
MOHAVES
COLORADO
PIMAS
APACHES
KIOWAYS
COMANCHES
RED
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
RIO GRANDE

MAP SHOWING
THE LOCATION OF
THE INDIAN NATIONS
IN THE
PRESENT UNITED STATES.
AT THE TIME OF ITS FIRST SETTLEMENT
By I. S. Clare
SCALE OF MILES
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Huron-Iroquois Tribes Colored Yellow
Dakota or Sioux " " Green
Washington
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10
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East
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50
45
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35
30
25
Greenwich
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87
82
77
LAKE SUPERIOR
CHIPPEWAS
MENOMONIES
SACS AND FOXES
WINNEBAGOES
LAKE MICHIGAN
OTTAWAS
LAKE HURON
WYANDOTS
OTTAWA RIVER
ST. LAWRENCE RIVER
LAKE ONTARIO
LAKE ERIE
ERIES
TUSCARORAS
SENECAS
CAYUGAS
ONONDAGAS
ONEIDAS
MOHAWKS
MOHEGANS
MANHATTANS
NANTICOKES
PENOBSCOTS
PAWTUCKETS
MASSACHUSETTS
WAMPANOAGS
MIAMIS
PIANKESHAWS
KICKAPOOS
POTAWATOMIES
IOWAS
ILLINOIS
OHIO RIVER
SHAWANEES
TUSCARORAS
CATAWBAS
CHEROKEES
CHICKASAWS
NATCHEZ
CHOCTAWS
CREEKS
OCHEES
SEMINOLES
BAHAMA ISLANDS
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN

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in love with the beautiful and accomplished Mher-ul-Nissa, "the Sun of Women," the daughter of a poor Tartar named Chaja Aiass, who had been admitted into the service of an omrah or prince at the Mogul court. As the maiden had been betrothed by her father to a Turkoman noble named Shere Afkun, Prince Selim applied to his father, the Emperor Akbar, who sternly refused to be a party to an act of injustice, even in the interest of his own son, the heir to the Mogul throne. The prince retired abashed, and Mher-ul-Nissa became the wife of Shere Afkun.

But when Selim, or Jehanghire, became Emperor by the death of his father Akbar, in 1605, he gave way to the dictates of his passion by causing Shere Afkun, the husband of the beautiful woman whom he coveted, to be murdered. No obstacles then stood in the way of Jehanghire's desires; but the new Emperor was so stricken with remorse at his base crime that he refused even to see the object of it; so that she lived neglected in his harem for four years, where she was so scantily provided for that she was obliged to earn a livelihood by turning her accomplishments to needlework and painting, her productions becoming objects of general desire and admiration.

Jehanghire's curiosity was finally aroused, and he visited Mher-ul-Nissa, who then assumed the name of Noor Mahl, "Light of the Harem," and thenceforth exercised the most unbounded influence over him. Her father, Chaja Aiass, was promoted to the distinguished position of Vizier; and his two sons were created omrahs, and proved themselves worthy of their stations. The affairs of the Mogul Empire were never better conducted than under Chaja Aiass, whose administration is still considered one of the few luminous spots in the dark history of internal government in India.

During Jehanghire's reign several European embassies arrived at the Mogul court with commercial objects. These were received with great favor by Jehanghire; but his vacillating disposition, which induced him alternately to grant and withhold their requests, or to alter their conditions, at the wish of his nobles, caused the failure of all these embassies.

The Vizier Chaja Aiass had held the haughty and imperious disposition of his daughter Noor Mahl under subjection; but after his death she conspired to raise to the Mogul throne Jehanghire's youngest son, who had married her daughter by her first husband, the murdered Shere Afkun. Her brother Asiph Jan was made Vizier, and was endowed with almost the same qualities as his father.

Noor Mahl's most determined enemy was Jehanghire's third son, Shah Jehan, who eventually became his father's successor on the Mogul throne. Shah Jehan had murdered his brother Chusero, and took up arms against his father to escape his resentment, but failed, chiefly through the abilities of his father's heroic and noble-minded general, Mohâbet. Jehanghire's empress hated the general as a matter of course, and sought to ruin him with her husband, who appears to have appreciated properly his character and services.

Mohâbet was now summoned to court, through Noor Mahl's influence; but he took the precaution to bring five thousand devoted rajputs as an escort. An audience was ignominiously refused to him until he accounted for certain alleged precautions. His son-in-law was sent to Jehanghire to protest Mohâbet's devotedness to his sovereign and to explain matters, but was sent back stripped and cruelly bastinadoed.

Mohâbet perceived that decisive measures were demanded, and he therefore planned a bold scheme. The imperial army had to cross the Jhylum. When the greater part of the army had reached the opposite side of the stream Mohâbet galloped to the bridge with two thousand cavalry, destroyed the bridge, and left a body of his determined friends to prevent the troops from returning across the river; after which he appeared in Jehanghire's tent with a pale but determined countenance, and made the Emperor his prisoner.

Every effort which the army under Asiph

Jan made to recross the river to the aid of the captive sovereign was resisted with great slaughter by Mohâbet's few but resolute troops. Noor Mahl herself, who had caused all the mischief, had already crossed the river, and was half frenzied at the success of Mohâbet's maneuver. She rushed into the water, discharged three quivers of arrows from the bow in her own hands, and had three successive drivers killed on the back of her elephant; thus inflaming the courage of her soldiers to the highest pitch.

Mohâbet crossed the river and drove all before him. He finally took Noor Mahl prisoner, accused her of high treason and other crimes, and obtained an order for her execution. She begged to see Jehanghire once more, and her request was granted. She was admitted into Jehanghire's presence, and stood before him in silence. Jehanghire burst into tears, and exclaimed: "Will you not spare this woman, Mohâbet? See how she weeps." Mohâbet replied: "It is not for the Emperor of the Moguls to ask in vain." Mohâbet thereupon instantly gave Noor Mahl her liberty.

The loyal Mohâbet then released Jehanghire, restored to him all authority, and dismissed his guards. But Noor Mahl was sufficiently base to demand the magnanimous general's death, and when Jehanghire refused to grant her request she sought to assassinate Mohâbet. Jehanghire warned his general of her intentions; whereupon Mohâbet fled, was proclaimed a traitor, and a price was set upon his head. His lofty and fearless character now led him to decide on a most extraordinary step. He disguised himself and went into the camp of Asiph Jan, the brother of his deadly enemy, Noor Mahl, and obtained an interview.

Asiph Jan appreciated Mohâbet's mercy to his sister, as well as his generous confidence on this occasion, and therefore received the general with open arms, taking him to a secret apartment. Said Mohâbet: "Purvez, the elder of the princes, is virtuous and my friend; but we must not exchange one feeble sovereign for another. I have fought Shah Jehan and know his merit. Though his ambition acknowledges no restraint of nature or justice, his vigor will prevent intestine disorder and give power to the laws." Asiph Jan coincided in these views; but their schemes were rendered unnecessary by the death of Purvez and Jehanghire, which occurred soon afterward, A. D. 1627.

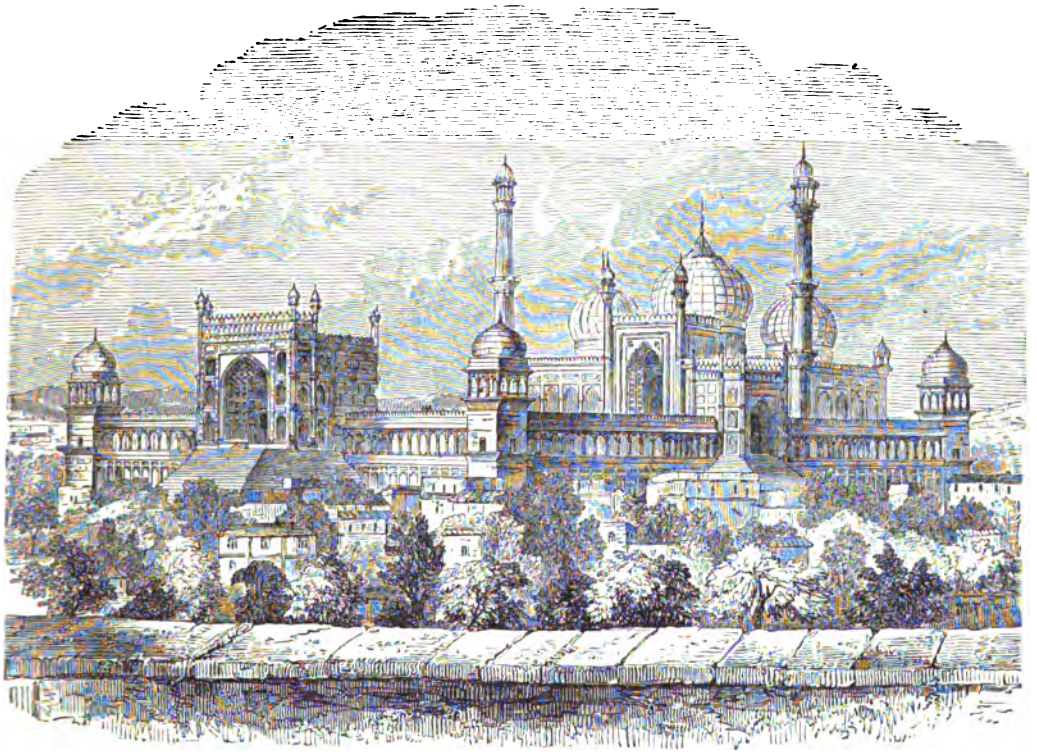
SHAH JEHAN succeeded his father on the Mogul throne, and secured himself against competitors by the murder of every other male descendant of Baber, except his own four sons—Dara, Sujah, Aurungzebe and Morad. Asiph Jan was created Vizier, and Mohâbet was appointed commander-in-chief. Lodi, a descendant of the Patan, or Afghan, sovereigns of India, and who had formerly fought against Shah Jehan, was now his principal enemy, but surrendered himself on condition of receiving a province. He was soon afterward invited to the Mogul court, but was received with such studied insult that he shed tears and fainted away—a strange effect on so brave a man. In another unsuccessful rebellion he perished in despair, after seeking "an honorable death" by leading thirty followers in an attack on a considerable force of the enemy. Shah Jehan displayed the most indecent joy at Lodi's death—a compliment to the latter's abilities and heroism. Some disturbances in the Deccan were soon quieted.

Shah Jehan's millions of subjects enjoyed such tranquillity and happiness during his reign as had seldom prevailed in Hindoostan. His governors were watched closely and brought to a strict account, and his reign is celebrated for the strict execution of the laws. The collection of the revenue was even better managed than during Akbar's reign. India is indebted to Shah Jehan for some of its noblest architectural structures. He founded the city of Jehanpoor, near Delhi, for his own residence, and erected one of the finest palaces in the world. He constructed a mausoleum of white marble, inlaid with precious stones, one hundred and ninety yards square, on an elevated terrace in the midst of a beautiful garden, for his favorite queen Noor Jehan.

Shah Jehan's illness encouraged his sons to aspire to the Mogul crown. The most dangerous of these sons was the crafty, courageous and energetic Aurungzebe, who professed to be intensely religious and desirous of restoring the purity of the Mohammedan worship, which had become wisely tolerant in order to conciliate the Hindoos. Aurungzebe cajoled his brother Morad, thus inducing him to place money and troops at his disposal. He also attached the enormously wealthy emir of the Prince of Golconda to his fortunes.

victory and making him Emperor, A. D. 1659.

The victorious AURUNGZEBE then made his father his prisoner, and detained him in captivity during the remainder of his life. Shah Jehan had previously sought to inveigle Aurungzebe into the harem of the citadel of Agra, where he had stationed some powerful Tartar women, who were ready to fall upon and crush his son. Aurungzebe also reduced his brother Morad to helpless captivity. Sujah, another brother, was driven into exile, and sought refuge



MOSQUE AT DELHI.

Dara, Shah Jehan's eldest son, who was called to administer the government of the Mogul Empire for his father, whose illness incapacitated him for its functions, began his administration by forbidding his brothers to approach the palace on penalty of death. The brothers broke out into open rebellion; and the hostile armies engaged in a desperate conflict, during which one of Dara's captains deserted to Aurungzebe with thirty thousand men, thus giving that prince the

with the King of Arakan, by whom he was basely murdered.

Aurungzebe's eldest brother Dara endured every hardship, and was at length treacherously betrayed to Aurungzebe, who caused him to be paraded about the streets of Delhi, attired in a dirty cloth, on a miserable, filthy-looking elephant. At this humiliating sight cries of distress and piercing shrieks were uttered by men, women and children on all sides, as if some great calam-

ity had befallen themselves. This popular commiseration sealed the fate of Dara, and he was murdered by Aurungzebe. Soon afterward Morad met with a similar fate.

These dissensions in the reigning Mogul family—the result of no fixed rule of succession—were evidence of a decline of the Mogul Empire. Shah Jehan had struck the first blow at the Mogul sovereignty by murdering his relatives. By a similar atrocity Aurungzbe shook that sovereignty to its very center. Thus the principle became established that, on the death of a Mogul Emperor, "there was no place of safety but the throne, the steps to which must be the dead bodies of unsuccessful competitors;" and these victims were usually the nearest relatives of the aspirant to the Mogul throne.

Aurungzebe's character appears to have undergone a remarkable change for the better when he had become undisputed master of the Mogul dominions in India. He showed his father all attention and respect consistent with his captivity. Desiring to adorn the throne with some of his father's jewels, Aurungzebe sent to ask for them of the captive Shah Jehan, who told his son that hammers were ready to pound the jewels into dust if there were any more importunity for them. Aurungzebe replied: "Let him keep his jewels; nay, let him command those of Aurungzebe." When this remark of his son was reported to Shah Jehan the captive father sent a number of the gems which he had refused, saying: "Take these, which I am destined to wear no more. Wear them with dignity, and, by your own renown, make some amends to your family for their misfortunes." When this remark of his captive father was reported to Aurungzebe the latter shed tears.

Aurungzebe was the most powerful of the Mogul Emperors of India, and one of the most powerful of all Oriental sovereigns. During his reign the Mogul Empire in India attained its highest pinnacle of wealth, power and magnificence. Its dominion extended from Persia on the west to Burmah on the east, and from the Hindoo Koosh and the Himalayas on the north to the river Kistna on the south; thus embracing all Hindoostan north of that river, and all of Afghanistan and Beloochistan. The population of this vast Empire was about ninety millions. Aurungzebe displayed abilities of the highest order. He was familiar with the entire business of internal administration, and devoted his attention thereto with unremitting assiduity. He rose at dawn every morning, and was in his hall of audience at seven o'clock, where, in accordance with the custom of Oriental monarchs, he listened to the complaints of his subjects, rich and poor, and administered justice with the strictest impartiality. He gave money liberally to the poor, and commanded that persons learned in the law and the precepts of the Koran should attend in the public courts at his own expense to aid the poor in matters of litigation.

Aurungzebe punished judges who were guilty of corruption or partiality with extreme severity. His activity kept the machinery of government in motion through all the members of the political fabric. His discerning eye followed corruption to its most secret haunts, and his inexorable justice established tranquillity and secured property all over his vast dominions.

The splendor of Aurungzebe's court was never surpassed in the Oriental world. His trappings of state were of unparalleled expense, and almost beyond credulity. The roof of his hall of audience was of silver, and the screens that separated it from the other apartments were of solid gold. His throne, with the canopy, the trappings, and the harness of the state elephant, were valued at sixty millions. All else pertaining to the royal person and to the royal residence was on a scale of similar splendor.

Most of Aurungzebe's wealth was obtained by plunder and oppression, of which he was guilty, but which he would not tolerate in any of his officials or servants. He increased the expenses of his government to an immense degree, but the legal revenues were not much larger than during the economical reign of Akbar.

Aurungzebe passed much of his time in his camp, because of his apprehensions of the hostile designs of his sons against one another and against himself. This camp was in the nature of a moving city, and usually contained fifty thousand troops, one hundred and fifty thousand horses, mules and elephants, one hundred thousand camels and oxen, and three or four hundred thousand camp followers. All the leading men of Delhi attended the court wherever it went, and the magnificence of this style of living supported the immense number of traders and artisans attached to the camp.

In 1665 a remarkable rebellion broke out in the Mogul Empire, which exhibited the great power of superstition over the weak-minded and credulous Hindoos. A class of fanatical devotees in Hindoostan, called *fakirs*, wandered about the country in multitudes nearly naked, pretending to live by begging, but in reality practicing theft, robbery and murder. In the territory of Manwar, or Judpore, a wealthy old woman commenced increasing her liberality toward the fakirs. These sturdy beggars gathered about her by thousands, not satisfied with the alms of the pious patroness, and commenced plundering the neigboring country. The inhabitants rose in arms against these hypocritical robbers, but were several times defeated with terrible slaughter.

The belief became prevalent that enchantment was at work. The people considered the old woman a sorceress, and believed that she compounded a witch's mess, rendering the fakirs invincible by mortal weapons. Finding the old woman's protection so powerful, the fakirs assembled in vast numbers, and ravaged the country far around. The Rajah of Manwar attacked them, but was defeated. Their unexpected success made them presumptuous, so that they determined to attack the capital of the Mogul Empire itself.

Accordingly an army of twenty thousand fakirs, under the leadership of the old woman, marched against Agra, and defeated an imperial force under the command of the collector of the district when within five days' journey of the capital. The victorious fakirs now considered themselves invincible, and therefore able to seize all the wealth and authority of the Empire; so that they at once proclaimed the old woman Empress of Hindoostan.

Aurungzebe had at first despised this insurrection, but he now became convinced of its serious character. The soldiers were affected with the popular superstition; and it was extremely hazardous to permit them to engage with these fanatical banditti, who were believed to be possessed of magic arts by which they could paralyze the bodies of their enemies.

Aurungzebe's prompt sagacity invented an antidote for the religious contagion. His reputation for sanctity was as great as that of the old woman. In his younger days he had been distinguished for the devotion and austerity of a religious mendicant, leading a life of severe penance, eating only barley bread, herbs and fruits, and drinking nothing but water.

He now turned the reputation which he had thus acquired to good account. He pretended that he had discovered, by means of incantation, a counter-enchantment to the enchantment of the fakirs. He wrote with his own hands certain mysterious words upon slips of paper, and declared that each of these slips of paper carried upon the point of a spear before each of the squadrons of troops would neutralize the spell of the enchantress. He was believed. The counter-enchantments were carried into battle; and the fakirs were cut to pieces, though they fought desperately.

Such was the result of the *Old Woman's War*, one of the most singular events in all history. When speaking of this affair, Aurungzebe remarked: "I find that too much religion among the vulgar is as dangerous as too little in the monarch."

The glory of the Mogul Empire ended with the death of Aurungzebe, in 1707; and civil wars soon led to the dismemberment of that vast dominion, which was gradually split up into fragments, as we shall see in a subsequent part of this work.

CHINA.

As before remarked, the sixteen Chinese Emperors belonging to the native Ming dynasty, which ruled China after the expulsion of the Mongol Tartars, in 1368, were mostly able sovereigns. Toward the middle of the fifteenth century the Tartars renewed their invasions of China, but were repulsed. During the reign of the Emperor SHI-TSUNG, A. D. 1522–1567, the Mantchoo Tartars invaded China, but were driven back. The Mantchoos seem to have originated ages ago by the commingling of the Mongols and the Tungouse in the country afterward called Mantchooria, which is north of China proper and east of Mongolia.

During the long reign of Shi-tsung, in the fifteenth century, began the intercourse between China and Europe by the trading ventures of the Portuguese, who established themselves on the Chinese island of Macao. In 1604 the Dutch sought to open a direct trade with China by sending three vessels to that country, but these Dutch vessels were not permitted to enter any Chinese port. In 1622 the Dutch made a second effort to open a trade with China, but they were again resisted; wherepon they endeavored to enter the Chinese Empire by force, but were driven off. The Dutch, however, effected a lodgment on one of the Pescadore Islands, which they afterward relinquished for the more important Chinese island of Formosa.

In the meantime several wars had taken place between the Chinese and the Mantchoos, and the Chinese reduced the Mantchoos to subjection. Finally the Emperor of China caused the King of Mantchooria to be assassinated—an act which so exasperated the Mantchoos that they renewed the war with the Chinese.

The last Chinese Emperor belonging to the Ming dynasty was HWAE-TSUNG. Very soon after his accession the King of Mantchooria led his army toward the Chinese frontier, and issued a proclamation declaring that he had been divinely commissioned to rule the Chinese Empire.

In the midst of this Mantchoo invasion, China was distracted by rebellions in different parts of her Empire. Bands of robbers infested the roads, placed themselves under favorite chiefs, and bade defiance to the imperial army. One of these rebel chiefs was Li-tse-ching, who marched into the provinces of Shensi and Honan, where he put to death all the mandarins, and gained the favor of the common people by freeing them from the payment of taxes. Multitudes flocked to his standard, and whole battalions of the imperial army deserted to him. Li-tse-ching then considered himself sufficiently powerful to declare himself Emperor of China. He therefore led his army to Pekin, and contrived to convey a number of his men in disguise into the capital, who were to open the gates to him when he appeared before the city.

Shortly afterward the rebel chief entered Pekin in triumph at the head of three hundred thousand men, while the Emperor Hwae-tsung shut himself up in his palace and devoted himself to superstitious ceremonies. When the Emperor found himself betrayed and deserted by his own troops and servants, and saw that he was unable to escape, he resolved to kill his own children and to commit suicide rather than incur the disgrace of being taken captive by his rebellious subjects.

Hwae-tsung accordingly conducted his beloved empress into a private and distant part of the gardens without saying a word. She at once comprehended his silent emotions of agony and despair; and, after embracing him tenderly, she retired into the woods, where she suspended herself by a silken string. The Emperor hastened to follow her in suicide. After cutting off the head of his young daughter with his cimeter, he hanged himself on another tree. His Prime Minister, his queens and his faithful eunuchs soon followed his example.

Hwae-tsung had left behind him a written request that the conquering rebel leader should be satisfied with the destruction of the imperial family and not inflict any cruelty on the people. When the self-immolated Emperor's body was laid before Li-

tse-ching, as he was seated upon the throne, the brutal wretch treated the corpse in the most shameful manner. He also beheaded two of the dead Emperor's sons and his Ministers, the eldest son making his escape.

While the princes and nobles of the Empire submitted to the usurper Li-tse-ching, there was a celebrated general who alone refused to acknowledge the usurper. This was Woo-san-kee, who commanded the Chinese army stationed on the frontier of Mantchoo Tartary. This general resolved to avenge his dead sovereign and to punish the usurper. Li-tes-ching marched against him with a powerful army.

After investing the capital of Woo-san-kee's provinces of Leaoo-tung, Li-tes-ching resorted to the most cruel expedient to force him to surrender. The usurper showed Woo-san-kee his father loaded with chains, declaring that he should instantly be sacrificed if the son refused to submit. The brave general was almost overcome at so sad a spectacle, but remained firm in his opposition to the usurper. The good father of Woo-san-kee, understanding his son's intentions by the signs which he made, applauded his resolution, and quietly submitted to his fate.

For the purpose of revenging his dead sovereign, as well as his dead father, Woo-san-kee immediately concluded a peace with the Mantchoo Tartars, and even solicited their active aid. The Mantchoos gladly accepted a proposal which opened to them a passage into China; and Tsong-ti, the Mantchoo king, immediately joined Woo-san-kee, thus forcing Li-tes-ching to raise the siege of the capital of the gallant general's province. The usurper was defeated in three great battles by Woo-san-kee and the Mantchoo king; but when Woo-san-kee desired to dismiss his Mantchoo allies they refused to return to their own country, and even marched upon Pekin in pursuit of the fleeing Li-tes-ching. But the usurper, thinking himself unsafe in his capital, plundered and burned his palace, and then fled with his vast treasures into the province of Shensi, or Chensi.

Tsong-ti, the victorious King of Mantchooria, at once took possession of China's great capital, but died almost immediately thereafter, after declaring his son Shun-chi his successor. SHUN-CHI was soon afterward conducted to Pekin, where he was joyfully welcomed on all sides as a deliverer, A. D. 1644. Thus ended the Ming dynasty of native Chinese Emperors, and thus began the Ta-tsing, or Mantchoo dynasty, which still occupies the throne of the Celestial Empire. Thus China was for the second time placed under the rule of a Tartar dynasty. The war which had effected this important revolution had lasted twenty-seven years, A. D. 1617–1644.

During this calamitous period for China a Chinese pirate named Coxinga kept the entire coast of China in constant alarm, and laid siege to the city of Nankin, where his followers abandoned themselves to dissipation on their leader's birthday, in which condition they were attacked by the garrison, and many of them were slaughtered. Coxinga expelled the Dutch from the island of Formosa, which flourished for a time as an independent kingdom; but after Coxinga's death his son submitted to the Mantchoos, and that large island was annexed to the Chinese Empire.

The Mantchoo Tartar conquest of China was not yet complete, as resistance was kept up against the Mantchoos in different portions of the Celestial Empire. The Chinese nobility imagined that they should find the Mantchoos mere auxiliaries who would aid them in placing a native Chinaman upon the Chinese throne, but these allies regarded the Chinese Empire as the just reward of their trouble. Under these circumstances, submission to them was difficult. Competitors arose in the various provinces of China against Shun-chi, the Mantchoo Emperor, and hostilities were obstinately carried on both by sea and land; but the vigor of the Tartars, stimulated by the inestimable value of the prize within their grasp, was crowned with complete success.

Shun-chi was a mere youth when he ascended the throne of China; and his educa-

tion was conducted by Adam Schall, a German Jesuit, who was afterward made Prime Minister of China by Shun-chi. Shun-chi acquitted himself with great address in his new station. He showed a marked deference to the ancient and fixed laws and customs of China. He conferred the offices of state upon such native Chinese as were found qualified for them, and he adhered to this principle in the disposal of the most exalted dignities. He evidently sought the public welfare rather than the extension of his own power. He encouraged learning, and himself acquired some proficiency in several sciences.

In 1653 the Dutch again endeavored to open a trade with China, but were again refused admittance. Permission was, however, granted to the Russians to trade with the northern parts of the Chinese Empire. In consequence of misconduct and affliction in his domestic relations, the Emperor Shun-chi became melancholy, and died in 1662.

KANG-HI, the son and successor of Shun-chi, reigned sixty years, A. D. 1662–1722, and was, next to Kublai Khan, the greatest sovereign that ever reigned over China. Under him the whole of the Celestial Empire was brought under subjection to the Mantchoo, or Ta-tsing dynasty; and the Empire, which had been distracted by repeated rebellions, impoverished by long and ruinous wars, and oppressed by vicious administration, was restored to order and prosperity.

Kang-hi was both a great statesman and a great general. His chief counselors were two Frenchmen, Bouvet and Gerbillon, to whom he was indebted for much of the success which attended his efforts in governing China. He introduced wise reforms into the financial administration of the Chinese Empire, and caused the Empire to be surveyed and a map of it to be made by European engineers. He was very anxious to make his subjects acquainted with the arts and sciences of Europe. He established institutions of learning, and in every way vastly promoted science and literature. He showed great favor to the Jesuit missionaries who came to his court, and profited so much by their instructions that he wrote a treatise on geometry; but all his efforts to give a new turn to Chinese literature were frustrated by the native Chinese scholars and literary men, who refused to abandon the tracks of their ancestors, and the consequence was that nothing new was produced.

At one time Kang-hi issued a severe decree against the Catholic converts among his subjects, demolishing all their churches; and only the influence of a Jesuit at the Chinese court prevented the destruction of the whole city of Ma-kau, but this Jesuit was afterward imprisoned with others and loaded with irons.

Kang-hi enlarged the Celestial Empire by the conquest and annexation of the island of Formosa and the kingdom of Thibet, the latter near the close of his reign, A. D. 1720. His successors have been YUNG-CHING, 1722–1736; KIEN-LUNG, 1736–1796; KIA-KING, 1796–1820; TAOU-KWANG, 1820–1850; HIEN-FUNG, 1850–1862; YUNG-CHI, 1862–1875; and KWANG-LIU, since 1875—all of whose reigns will be noticed in subsequent portions of this work.

SECTION IX.—PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION.

THE Reformation achieved its final triumph in the Thirty Years' War. The struggle in England between the Stuart dynasty and the people as represented by the Commons ended in the establishment of the free constitution of England by "the Glorious Revolution of 1688." The supremacy of France during the Age of Louis XIV. established the ascendency of the French language, tastes, fashions, manners, and habits of thought among the cultivated and intellectual classes throughout Europe. The revival of learning and

science begun in the sixteenth century was continued during the seventeenth, which was signalized by great scientific discoveries, improvements in philosophy, strong literatures, and an improved condition of the masses.

FRANCIS BACON (1561–1626)—the great English philosopher, known better as Lord Bacon (Viscount St. Albans)—founded the *inductive* system of philosophy; and his great works were his *Essays*, the *Advancement of Learning*, and *Novum Organum*.

DESCARTES (1596–1650)—the eminent French philosopher—had great influence on the method of philosophising in the seventeenth century. He was the tutor of Queen Christina of Sweden.

SPINOZA (1622–1677)—a Jew of Holland and likewise a great philosopher—carried forward the new system of philosophy founded by Bacon and Descartes, and was a famous Pantheist.

THOMAS HOBBES (1588–1679)—a famous English philosopher—was early associated with Galileo and Descartes; and his principal works are the *Leviathan* and *Behemoth*. JOHN LOCKE (1632–1704)—a celebrated English philosopher—wrote an *Essay on the Human Understanding*.

GALILEO (1564–1642)—the distinguished Italian astronomer—adopted the Copernican theory of the solar system and invented the telescope, with the aid of which he discovered the satellites of Jupiter, the rings of Saturn, and the moonlike phases of Venus. He was twice brought before the Inquisition to renounce the theory of the earth's rotation which he published in his *System of the World*. His second incarceration brought on an affection of the eyes terminating in blindness.

KEPLER (1571–1630)—the eminent German astronomer, called "the Legislator of the Heavens"—discovered what are known as *Kepler's Three Laws*, which laid the foundations of mathematical astronomy. Kepler was one of the greatest thinkers of any age. He combined the inspiration of a prophet and the creative genius of a poet with the method of a mathematician. Persecuted by religious bigots, he led a melancholy life in the most abject poverty.

SIR ISAAC NEWTON (1642–1727)—the illustrious English astronomer, mathematician and philosopher, who was then professor of mathematics at Cambridge University—discovered the law of universal gravitation, by which the earth and all the heavenly bodies are kept in their respective places. Newton's theory of light and colors is the foundation of the science of optics; and his Latin Work, *Principia*, is the basis of all natural philosophy, or physics. Newton also discovered that important instrument of mathematics, the *Calculus*.

LEIBNITZ (1640–1716)—an eminent German philosopher, metaphysician, mathematician, historian, jurist and scholar—was the founder of the *eclectic* system of German philosophy, and discovered the Calculus about the same time as Newton.

Besides the great scientific discoveries by Galileo, Kepler, Newton and Leibnitz—the four great scientific lights during the seventeenth century—there were numerous other discoveries in mathematics, astronomy and natural science. LORD NAPIER (1550–1617)—a Scotchman—invented *logarithms*, thus abridging calculation. WILLIAM HARVEY (1578–1657)—a great English physician and surgeon—discovered the circulation of the blood, which he first announced in 1615, and published in 1628. The Italian TORRICELLI (1608–1647), of Florence, invented the mercurial barometer, the basis of *hydraulics*. ROEMER (1644–1710), a Dane, invented the thermometer bearing his name. OTTE GUERICKE (1602–1686), a German, invented the air-pump. The German chemist BRANDT accidentally discovered phosphorus in 1669. ROBERT BOYLE (1627–1691)—a famous Irish-English philosopher, noted for his piety—also made chemical discoveries. HUYGHENS (1629–1695)—a Dutch astronomer—discovered Saturn's rings and one of her satellites. CASSINI (1625–1712)—an Italian astronomer—discovered four satellites of Saturn. His son, James Cassini, discovered the divisions in Saturn's ring. The renowned English astronomer, ED-

SIR ISAAC NEWTON.

LORD BACON.

THOMAS HOBBES.

JOHN LOCKE.

BEN JONSON.

WILLIAM HARVEY, M. D.

JOHN MILTON.

JOHN DRYDEN.

MUND HALLEY (1656–1742), made important discoveries highly serviceable to navigation, and discovered the comet bearing his name. The *English Royal Society* incorporated by Charles II., the *French Academy of Sciences* instituted by Richelieu and similar institutions in other European countries, advanced physics and chemistry.

The Age of Louis XIV.—the *Augustan Age of French Literature*—shone resplendent with the names of great dramatists, satirists and divines. CORNEILLE (1606–1684)—a great dramatist—excelled in tragedy, as *The Cid*. RACINE (1639–1699)—the greatest French dramatist—was noted for his tragedies. MOLIÈRE (1622–1673)—also a great dramatist—surpassed in comedy.

PASCAL (1623–1662)—a great philosopher and scientist—wrote against the Jesuits in his *Provincial Letters*. LA ROCHEFAUCAULD (1613–1680) was noted for his *Moral Maxims*. LA FONTAINE (1621–1705)—the "Modern Æsop"—was celebrated for his *Fables*. FÉNELON (1651–1715)—Archbishop of Cambray—was celebrated for his romance, *Télémaque*. FLEURY (1642–1723)—a church historian—wrote *Histoire Ecclesiastique*. BAYLE (1647–1706) was a celebrated Huguenot writer. BOILEAU (1637–1711) was a great critic and satirical poet.

BOSSUET (1627–1704)—Bishop of Meaux—was a great preacher. BOURDALOUE (1632–1704) was also a famous pulpit orator. MASSILLON (1663–1742) was likewise renowned for pulpit eloquence.

In English literature we find many dramatists who were cotemporaries and successors of Shakespeare, who died in 1616. BEN JONSON (1574–1637)—poet-laureate under James I.—was the greatest dramatist after Shakespeare. Other great dramatic poets were FRANCIS BEAUMONT (1585–1615) and JOHN FLETCHER (1576–1625), who were associated in their writings; and PHILIP MASSINGER (1584–1640).

JOHN MILTON (1608–1674)—the great epic poet of England—who had been Oliver Cromwell's Latin secretary, wrote *Paradise Lost* and *Paradise Regained*, in poverty and blindness, after the Stuart Restoration in 1660. SAMUEL BUTLER (1612–1680) wrote *Hudibras*, a satirical poem on the Puritans. JOHN DRYDEN (1631–1700)—poet-laureate under Charles II.—wrote dramas and satirical poems, and translated Virgil's *Æneid*.

JOHN BUNYAN (1628–1688)—a tinker of Bedford and a Baptist preacher—was imprisoned twelve years for preaching, during which he wrote *Pilgrim's Progress*, the most famous allegory in the English language, and which has been translated into all languages. JEREMY TAYLOR (1613–1667)—a great divine and theologian—wrote such works as *Liberty of Prophesying*, *Holy Living* and *Holy Dying*.

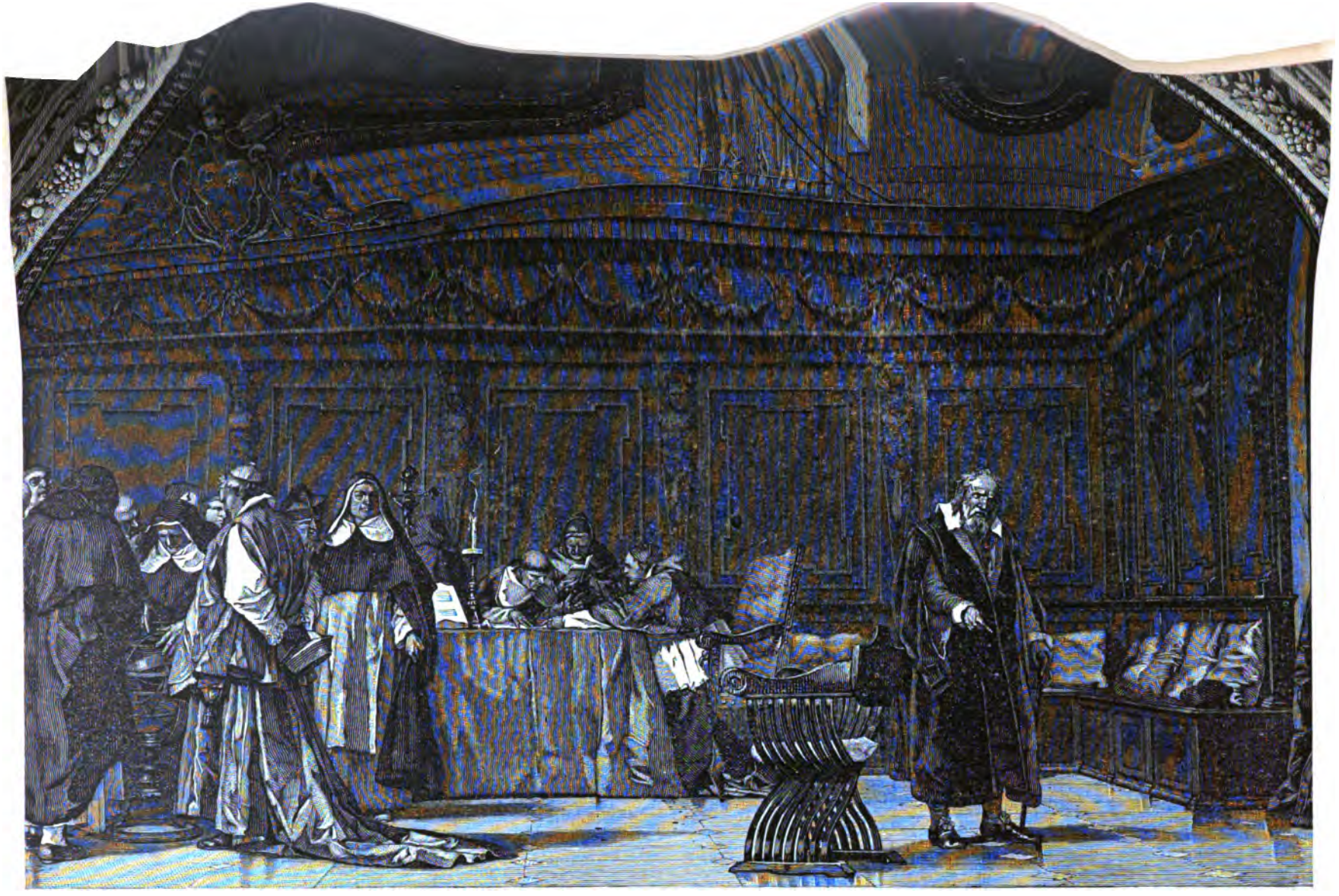
EDWARD HYDE, EARL OF CLARENDON (1608–1673)—the great statesman and Prime Minister of Charles II.—described the civil war between Charles I. and Parliament in his *History of the Rebellion*. SIR MATTHEW HALE (1609–1676) was a famous English jurist and writer.

Spain produced two great dramatic poets during the seventeenth century. LOPE DE VEGA (1562–1635) wrote a thousand dramas. CALDERON (1600–1681) wrote about five hundred dramas.

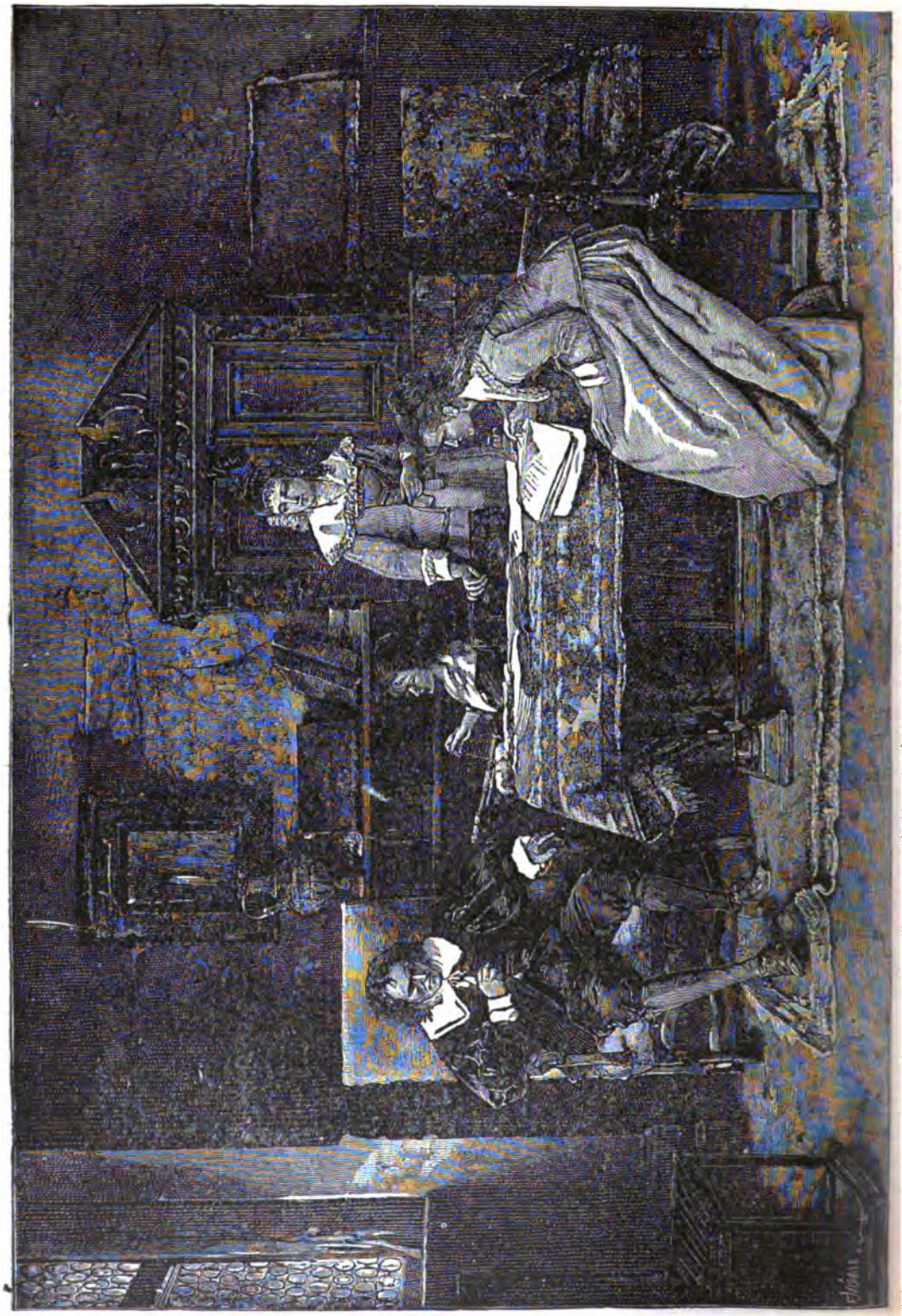
The three greatest artists of the seventeenth century were natives of the Netherlands. PETER PAUL RUBENS (1577—1640)—the most celebrated of the Flemish painters—flourished at Antwerp, and painted four thousand pictures, of which the most noted are the *Descent from the Cross*, the *Last Judgment*, and *Peace and War*. VANDYKE (1599–1641)—a pupil of Rubens and a great portrait painter—was a native of Antwerp, but spent most of his life in England, where he painted the portraits of Charles I. and Strafford, and a historical painting, *The Crucifixion*. REMBRANDT (1606–1669)—a native of Leyden—was the third great painter of the Flemish school.

POUSSIN (1594–1655) was a famous French painter, whose chief paintings are the *Death of Germanicus*, the *Taking of Jerusalem*, and the *Last Supper*. CLAUDE LORRAINE (1600–1682) and LEBRUN (1619–1690) were also celebrated French painters.

MURILLO (1618–1682)—the great Spanish



1141— GALILEO BEFORE THE TRIBUNAL.



MILTON DICTATING TO HIS DAUGHTER "PARADISE LOST."

painter—painted scenes of humble life and religious pieces, such as *Madonnas*, holy families and others; and died from the effects of a severe fall while painting the interior of a church. VELASQUEZ (1599–1660) was also a great Spanish painter. SALVATOR ROSA (1615–1673) was a famous Italian painter and poet.

INIGO JONES (1596–1652) and SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN (1632–1723) were great English architects; the latter being the architect of St. Paul's Cathedral in London, the largest Protestant church in the world.

As we have seen, the extreme Puritan sect of *Friends*, or *Quakers*, was founded in England by George Fox during the civil wars. George Fox early bewailed the wickedness of the world, and when asked into a booth at a fair by some professors of religion, who then began to drink healths, he left them and went home in great affliction; and, being unable to sleep that night, he walked up and down and prayed to the Lord. In 1643 he left his home and relatives, and traveled from place to place, his mind being in great distress. He sought comfort from priests and professors of religion, but found none. Only the "inward light" comforted him. He traveled about in leather costume, fasted, walked abroad in solitary places, many days took his Bible and sat in hollow trees and lonely places until the approach of night, and frequently walked mournfully by himself all night. He began to preach in 1648, and suffered much persecution, his meetings being broken up, himself being stoned and frequently imprisoned.

George Fox condemned war as a sin in which no Christian man should engage either by military service or the payment of taxes to support an army; advocated equal rights for women, allowing them to speak and preach in public; condemned slavery, intemperance, judicial oaths, capital punishment, imprisonment for debt, extravagance and waste, vanity and idle luxury, the senseless changes of fashion, and all falsehood in act or speech; denounced a hireling ministry; rejected Baptism and the Lord's Supper; and made the authority of the Bible subordinate to that of the "universal inner light" in men's hearts.

The Quakers were a peculiar sect in their dress, and in all their social habits and customs. Their zeal was tried by cruel persecution. They were cast into prison and mad-houses; they were pilloried; they were whipped; they were burned in the face; and their tongues were bored with red-hot irons; but nothing could overcome their fortitude and constancy, or quench their enthusiasm. Those who were driven out of England vainly sought an asylum among their former brethren in affliction, the Puritans of New England, by whom they were also persecuted; but under William Penn they found a refuge in the wilds of Pennsylvania.

The maritime enterprises of the Portuguese during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, which had given that nation the greatest commercial influence, gave way to the superior vigor and enterprise of the Dutch in the seventeenth century. The famous Dutch East India Company, chartered in 1602, caused a union of the interests and efforts of the rival cities of the Netherlands. The military and naval power of the Dutch East India Company was enormous. This great commercial corporation had a formidable army, and a navy of one hundred and fifty vessels carrying from twenty to sixty guns, besides fifty smaller vessels. The States-General of Holland at various times subsidized the Company in order to enable it to carry on its wars.

The centre of the Dutch East India Company was at Batavia, in the Island of Java —a city called the "Pearl of the East," and which had a population of one hundred and sixty thousand at the close of the seventeenth century. The Dutch gained the supremacy by their conflicts with the Portuguese, and the Dutch colonies soon became numerous and important.

The French also established an East India Company for trade in India, and there was also a Danish East India Company in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

The English East India Company, chartered by Queen Elizabeth, December 31, 1600, has been alluded to. Its first factory was erected at Surat in 1612. It obtained the city of Madras by grant from its native sovereign in 1639. It obtained Bombay by cession from the Portuguese in 1662. In 1699 an English settlement was made at Calcutta.

Henry IV. of France encouraged various kinds of commerce and manufactures; and during the reign of Louis XIV., under Colbert's administration, every department of industrial and commercial enterprise received its greatest impulse in France. Colbert established companies to trade in the East and West Indies, thus forming a rival to the Dutch. He promoted the manufacture of fine cloths, fostered the cultivation of mulberry-trees, and encouraged the art of making plate-glass, which had previously been imported into France from Venice. From that period date the manufacture of porcelain at Sevres and the world-renowned Gobelin tapestry. Colbert imported from England machinery for weaving stockings, and introduced lace-making from Flanders and Venice. He also vastly promoted commerce by the construction of the Canal of Languedoc, connecting the Atlantic Ocean with the Mediterranean, A. D. 1664–1681.

Commerce and navigation greatly flourished in England during the reign of Charles I., when a large trade was carried on with Guinea, the Levant and the East Indies; while immense quantities of cloth were exported annually from England to Turkey, and the English possessed almost a monopoly of the traffic with Spain. English commerce was interrupted during the civil wars, but soon recovered after the Stuart Restoration, in 1660, and received additional encouragement from the losses which befel the Dutch. England soon acquired a considerable trade with her colonies in North America, about five hundred vessels being employed in trade with those colonies and with the West Indies at the end of the seventeenth century. Some of these vessels were engaged in the slave-trade. Tea and coffee were brought to England from the East, and were so expensive for a time that they were then only used as luxuries. In spite of *The Counterblaste to Tobacco*, written by King James I., who greatly disliked the use of that article, tobacco became an important article of commerce. English whaleships visited Greenland and Spitzbergen; while Madras and Bombay, in Hindoostan, became the great centers of the trade of the English East India Company.

Next to London, Bristol was the chief sea-port of England; and Norwich was, next to London, the principal manufacturing city of the kingdom. The present great manufacturing centers of England—Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield and Leeds—were then small towns; and Liverpool had less than two hundred seamen. But manufacturing industry then began its present prominence in England. The cotton manufacture at Manchester commenced, and the art of dyeing woolen cloths was introduced into England from Flanders, thus saving large sums of money to the English. New manufactures of iron, brass, silk and paper were also established in England. The manufacture of oil-cloth in England be- in 1660. The Duke of Buckingham introduced glass-making from Venice.

The trade with India and the Levant led to the introduction of many articles of luxury in dress and furniture into England. Carpets, previously used only as table-covers, came gradually into their present use: although rushes or matting constituted the only covering for floors during most of this period.

Architecture flourished in France during the seventeenth century. Henry IV. completed the splendid palace of St. Germains and the Hôtel de Ville, both of which had been begun by Francis I., and erected many other magnificent structures. Louis XIV. completed the Palais Royal, begun by Richelieu, and adorned Paris with many parks and public edifices; but the most splendid of his works were the famous palace and gardens of Versailles. The fine arts flourished in England under the Stuarts.

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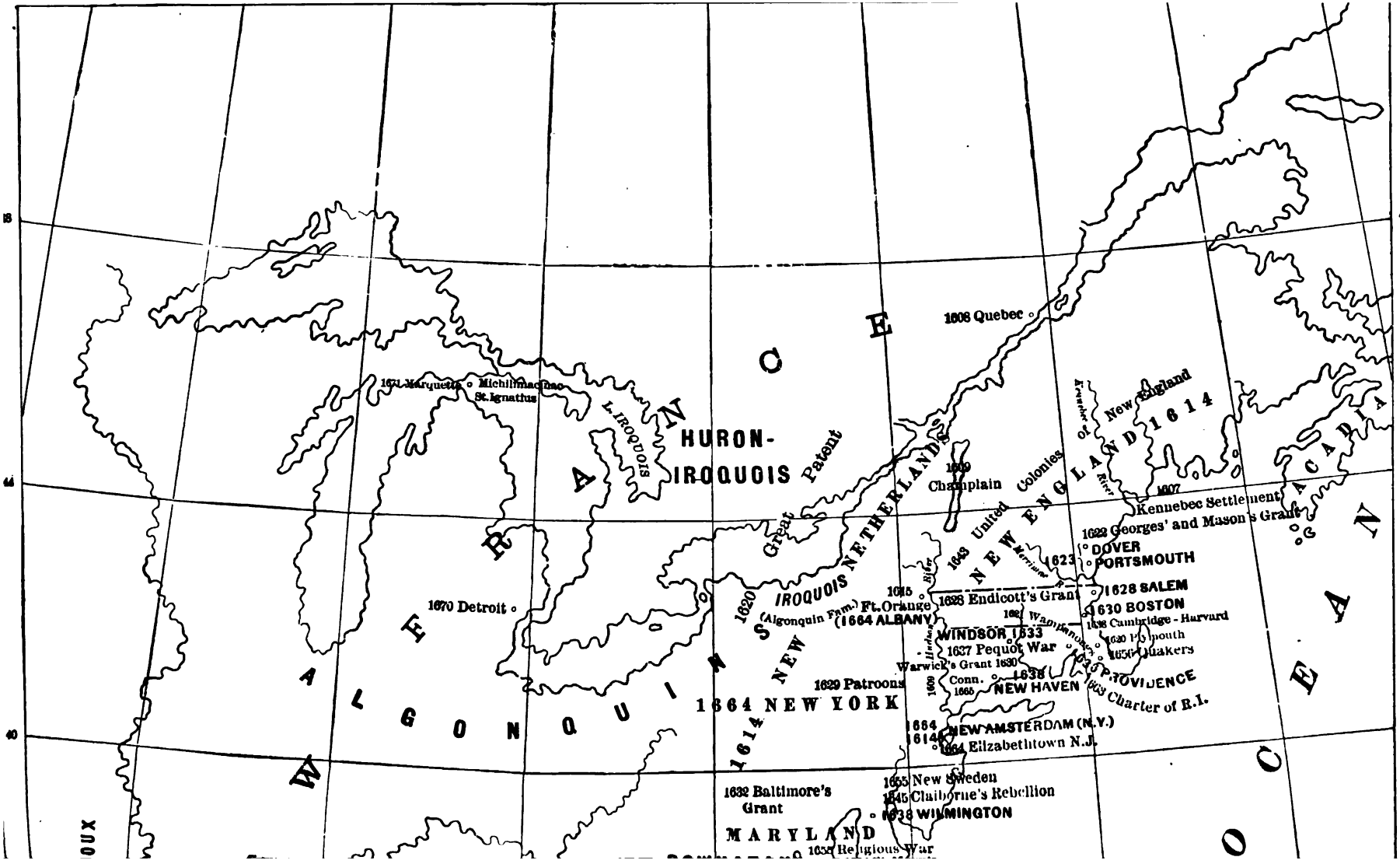
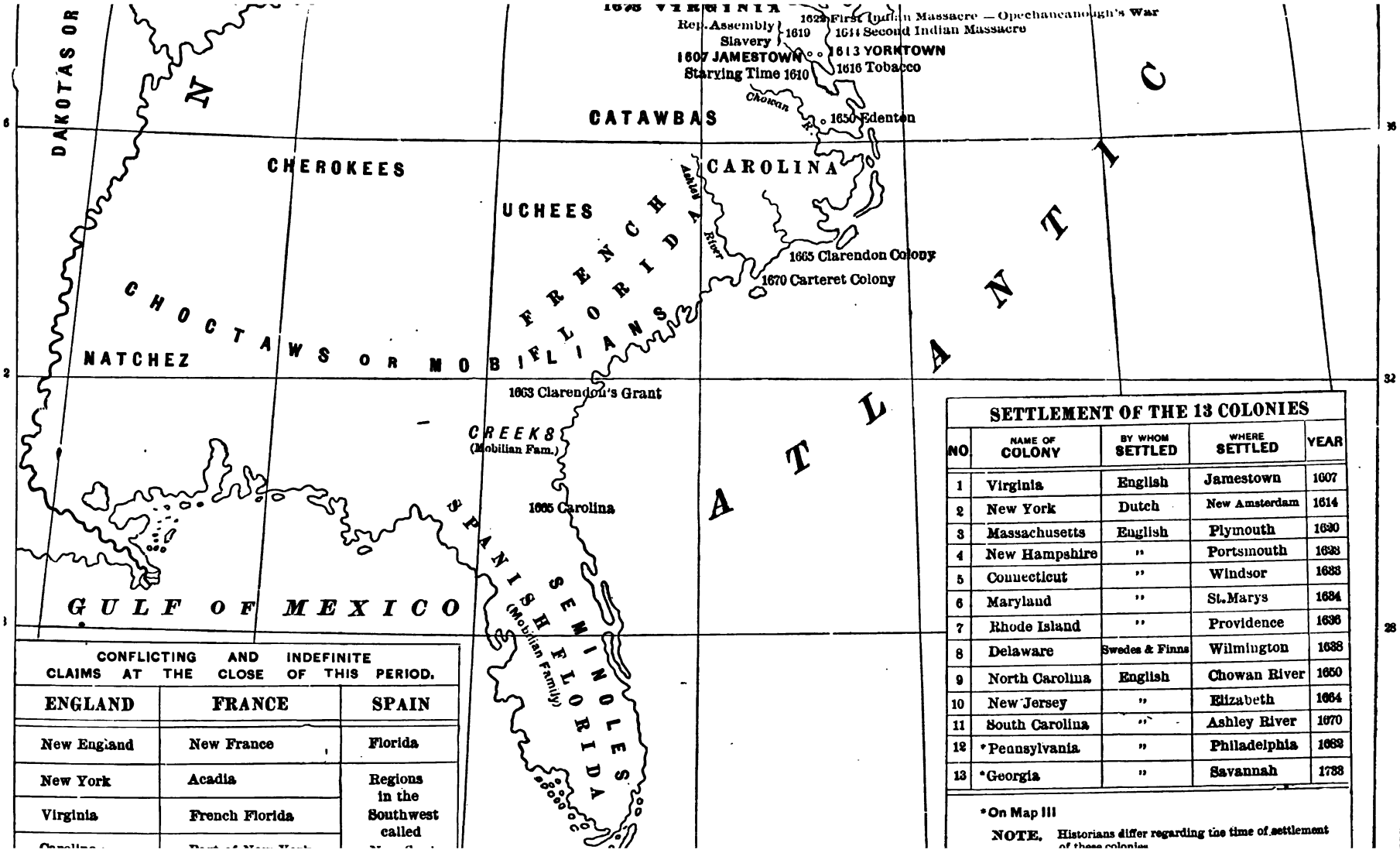


1608 Quebec
1671 Marquette
Michilimacinac
St. Ignatius
L. IROQUOIS
HURON-
IROQUOIS
Great Patent
1609
Champlain
United Colonies of New England
1643
NEW ENGLAND 1614
Kennebec River
1607
Kennebec Settlement
1622 Georges' and Mason's Grant
1623
DOVER
PORTSMOUTH
1628 SALEM
1630 BOSTON
1638 Cambridge - Harvard
1620 Plymouth
1656 Quakers
1635 PROVIDENCE
1663 Charter of R.I.
1628 Endicott's Grant
1615
Ft. Orange
(1664 ALBANY)
1620
IROQUOIS
(Algonquin Fam.)
NEW NETHERLANDS
1670 Detroit
ALGONQUINS
1614
1664 NEW YORK
1629 Patroons
Warwick's Grant 1630
Conn.
1665
1638
NEW HAVEN
WINDSOR 1633
1637 Pequot War
1609 Hudson River
1621 Wampanoags
1664
1614
NEW AMSTERDAM (N.Y.)
1664 Elizabethtown N.J.
1655 New Sweden
1645 Claiborne's Rebellion
1638 WILMINGTON
1632 Baltimore's
Grant
MARYLAND
1655 Religious War
ACADIA
OCEAN



CONFLICTING AND INDEFINITE CLAIMS AT THE CLOSE OF THIS PERIOD.		
ENGLAND	FRANCE	SPAIN
New England	New France	Florida
New York	Acadia	Regions in the Southwest called
Virginia	French Florida	
Carolina	Part of New York	New Spain

SETTLEMENT OF THE 13 COLONIES

NO.	NAME OF COLONY	BY WHOM SETTLED	WHERE SETTLED	YEAR
1	Virginia	English	Jamestown	1607
2	New York	Dutch	New Amsterdam	1614
3	Massachusetts	English	Plymouth	1620
4	New Hampshire	"	Portsmouth	1623
5	Connecticut	"	Windsor	1633
6	Maryland	"	St. Marys	1634
7	Rhode Island	"	Providence	1636
8	Delaware	Swedes & Finns	Wilmington	1638
9	North Carolina	English	Chowan River	1650
10	New Jersey	"	Elizabeth	1664
11	South Carolina	"	Ashley River	1670
12	*Pennsylvania	"	Philadelphia	1682
13	*Georgia	"	Savannah	1733

*On Map III

NOTE. Historians differ regarding the time of settlement of these colonies

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CHAPTER IV.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

SECTION I.—WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

FOR the next three years after the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, all Europe watched the declining health of the childless King Charles II. of Spain, the last of the dynasty of the Spanish Hapsburgs. His kingdom appeared almost as near dissolution as himself, suffering from a bankrupt treasury and the general neglect of public discipline; while famine, earthquakes, hurricanes and inundations were adding to the misery of the wretched country, which but a century before had been the leading power of Europe.

In case of the death of Charles II., the throne would have been claimed by three princes, all of whom derived their claims from the daughters of Charles's father, King Philip IV. The elder daughter, Maria Theresa, as we have seen, was the first wife of Louis XIV. The younger daughter Margarita had married the Emperor Leopold I. According to the law of hereditary succession, the elder daughter was clearly entitled to the Spanish dominions; but the Spaniards pleaded her renunciation of all her claims upon her marriage with the French king as debarring her issue from the inheritance of the Spanish dominions. Louis XIV., however, asserted that this relinquishment had been rendered null and void because the dowry on which it depended had never been paid, and that therefore the claims of his first wife's children were valid.

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany claimed the Spanish throne for his second son, the Archduke Charles of Austria, as the child of his wife, the younger daughter of Philip IV. of Spain. The third claimant to the Spanish inheritance was the little Electoral prince of Bavaria, whose mother was the daughter of the Emperor Leopold I. and his wife, the Empress Margarita. King Charles II. of Spain and his subjects considered the little Bavarian prince the rightful heir.

Louis XIV. did not expect to secure the success of his claim without difficulty, but he hoped to obtain at least a part of the Spanish dominions by continuing his intrigues, and for this purpose he negotiated a treaty with William III. of England and Holland in October, 1698, for the partition of the Spanish dominions, upon the death of Charles II. of Spain; by which Spain and her possessions in America and the Netherlands were to be assigned to the Electoral prince of Bavaria; while France was to have the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily, certain specified seaports in Tuscany and the province of Guipuzcoa; and the Duchy of Milan was to be given to the Archduke Charles of Austria, the Emperor Leopold's son.

Notwithstanding the precautions of the contracting parties, Charles II. of Spain received information of this insolent attempt for the partition of his dominions without

consulting him; and, incensed at this action, he at once by a solemn act of succession declared the youthful Electoral prince of Bavaria the sole heir to the Spanish dominions; but that little prince soon afterward died suddenly at Brussels, February 6, 1699, not without suspicion of having been poisoned at the secret instigation of the Austrian Hapsburgs.

In 1700 Kings Louis XIV. and William III. signed a new partition treaty, assigning Lorraine and all the Spanish possessions in Italy except Milan to the Dauphin, while Spain itself was allotted to the Archduke Charles of Austria on condition that it should never be united with the German Empire. The Duke of Lorraine was to have Milan in exchange for his hereditary duchy. If the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany rejected this arrangement Spain was to be bestowed on a third party.

Greatly irritated at the King of France, King Charles II. of Spain made a will acknowledging the Archduke Charles of Austria as his heir and successor to all the Spanish dominions; but the Spanish nobles, corrupted by the gold of Louis XIV., induced King Charles II. to make a new will, by which Duke Philip of Anjou, grandson of the King of France, was appointed successor to the whole Spanish inheritance. Charles II. died November 1, 1700; and, after some hesitation, Louis XIV. adopted the last will. When the Duke of Anjou started for Madrid to take possession of the throne of Spain, with the title of PHILIP V., the French monarch said to him: "There are no more Pyrenees."

In December, 1700, Philip of Anjou was welcomed at the Spanish capital with acclamations, and most of the European powers hastened to acknowledge his title to the crown of Spain. The interference of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany was delayed by symptoms of a Hungarian rebellion and by disturbances in the North of Germany caused by the creation of the ninth Electorate—that of Hanover under the Guelfs, the House of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel.

All seemed for the time to favor the French king's interests, and by a conciliatory policy he might have perhaps secured the advantages which he had gained. The other European powers were greatly averse to a general European war, and did not appear disposed to support the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany in his efforts to place his son, the Archduke Charles of Austria, upon the Spanish throne. In England the Tories, who were opposed to war, came into power in place of the Whigs, who were ready to go to war with the French king to drive Philip of Anjou from the throne of Spain.

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany opposed the last will of Charles II. of Spain, and listened to the advice of his great general, Prince Eugene of Savoy, who represented to him that the German Empire could never be secure while the French held entrances to it through Northern Italy and the Spanish Netherlands.

By the *Treaty of the Crown*, concluded at Vienna with the Elector Frederick III. of Brandenburg, who coveted the title of King of Prussia, the Emperor Leopold I. acquired a powerful ally without cost. The splendor-loving Elector Frederick III. considered the outward magnificence surrounding the court of Versailles the greatest triumph of earthly majesty, and attached the highest importance to a splendid court and magnificent feasts. He considered a royal crown the most inestimable of all worldly possessions, and therefore looked with envy upon the Elector of Saxony, who had been elected King of Poland, and upon the Elector of Hanover, who had become heir-apparent to the crown of England in accordance with the Act of Settlement passed by the English Parliament in 1701. Great was the joy of Frederick III. when the Emperor Leopold I. showed a disposition to confer upon him the royal title, in return for his assurances of vigorous support in the impending war.

By the Treaty of the Crown, already alluded to, the Emperor Leopold I. engaged to recognize the royal dignity of the Elector of

Brandenburg, in consideration of certain aids to be rendered in the field, the Imperial Diet and the Electoral Council; and the Elector Frederick III. hastened to Königsburg, where he was solemnly crowned the first *King of Prussia*, with the title of FREDERICK I., January 18, 1701.

In the magnificent ceremony of coronation, King Frederick I. placed the crown of Prussia upon his own head and upon the head of his wife; and, after a succession of splendid banquets, he held a magnificent entry into Berlin, which he made the capital of the new Kingdom of Prussia, and which he attempted to render a suitable residence for royalty by public buildings, pleasure grounds and monuments of art.

The first King of Prussia encouraged the arts and sciences. In his country-seat of Charlottenberg, where his highly accomplished queen, Sophia Charlotte, held her gracious rule there was always an assemblage of distinguished and intellectual people. Societies for the cultivation of the arts and sciences were established at Berlin, under the auspices of the great philosopher Leibnitz; while a flourishing university arose at Halle.

The new Kingdom of Prussia, from the necessity of its position, assumed from its very beginning that military character which has ever since distinguished it. In consequence of the energetic war policy of the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg—the father of the first King of Prussia—the new kingdom was raised by a progressive military organization to a rank among the Great Powers of Europe.

With such powerful aid, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany resolved upon war with the King of France, and accordingly sent a large army to Italy under his great general, Prince Eugene of Savoy, who, as we have already seen, was a Frenchman by birth and had gained great renown in the wars against the Ottoman Empire. After massing his army near Trent, Prince Eugene crossed the Tyrolese Alps and descended upon the plain of Lombardy, in May, 1701. He defeated the French army under Marshal Catinat, and the German imperial troops occupied the entire region between the Adige and the Adda. Prince Eugene defeated Marshal Villeroi, Catinat's successor, still more signally at Chiari and Cremona.

While this petty war between France and Germany was in progress, Louis XIV., by one imprudent act, provoked a powerful combination against himself. On the death of the exiled James II., in 1701, Louis recognized his son as King of England, with the title of James III., after having promised not to do so. This act of the French king was regarded by England as a national insult; and King William III. found his Parliament and people, who before had been averse to England's participation in a Continental war, ready to second all his views. The most earnest preparations for war were now made by England.

The English Parliament immediately voted liberal supplies for the war, with the petition that "no peace shall be made with France until His Majesty and the nation have made reparation for the great indignity offered by the French king." Several months afterward the English Parliament also passed an "Act for abjuring the pretended Prince of Wales."

The Dutch were also alarmed by the expulsion of their garrisons by the French from several towns in the Spanish Netherlands which had been guaranteed to Holland as a frontier on the side of France. Thus several great European nations were ready to combine against the King of France when the favorable moment should arrive.

Accordingly a *Second Grand Alliance* was formed against Louis XIV. by the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, King Frederick I. of Prussia, the Elector-Palatine, England and Holland. As in the First Grand Alliance, William III., King of England, Scotland and Ireland, and Stadtholder of Holland, was the soul of the Second Grand Alliance against the French monarch. His death, March 8, 1702, made no change in this respect; as his successor on the throne

of England, Queen ANNE, declared her determination to adhere to her illustrious predecessor's war policy.

An English army under the famous General John Churchill, Earl of Marlborough, was sent to Holland. By a peaceful revolution in the Dutch Republic, the office of Stadtholder was abolished, and was succeeded by a more purely republican government supported by the De Witts. Heinsius, Grand Pensionary of Holland, firmly adhered to the policy of the Prince of Orange, and had the chief voice in the affairs of the Dutch Republic. Heinsius along with the Earl of Marlborough and Prince Eugene constituted the *Triumvirate of the Second Grand Alliance.*

The Elector of Bavaria and his brother, the Archbishop-Elector of Cologne, entered

DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

into an alliance with the King of France. England, Holland and the German Empire declared war against France and Spain in May, 1702. Thus began the *War of the Spanish Succession*, which for twelve years convulsed Southern and Western Europe. In his former wars Louis XIV. had generally triumphed over his enemies, but during the whole course of the War of the Spanish Succession he suffered a continuation of the most calamitous defeats. He no longer displayed the vigor and energy for which he had been before noted.

The great generals on the side of the allies were the Earl of Marlborough, who was soon created Duke of Marlborough, the commander of the English forces, and Prince Eugene of Savoy, the famous commander of the German imperial troops. The ablest of the French generals was Marshal Villars. The other French commanders were Marshals Villeroi, Catinat, Boufflers, Marsin and Tallard, and the Dukes of Vendôme, Burgundy and Berwick—the last of whom was an illegitimate son of the ill-fated King James II. of England.

The Earl of Marlborough was a great statesman as well as a great general, and was the most prominent political leader in England during the whole period of the War of the Spanish Succession, being the great upholder of the war policy. Both parties in England at first supported the war—the Tories because it was waged by a Tory general, and the Whigs because it was waged in the interest of a Whig policy.

The English and Dutch made the territory of Cologne their first object of attack. In the campaign of 1702 the skillful maneuvers of the Earl of Marlborough forced the French army under Marshal Boufflers and the Duke of Burgundy to abandon the entire line of the Meuse, and compelled the towns of Kaiserswerth, Venloo, Stephanswerth and Ruremonde to surrender in succession. Finally, the Earl of Marlborough took Liege by storm, October 28, 1702. This brilliant campaign raised the Earl of Marlborough to the first rank among European generals and vastly increased England's influence in European affairs.

On the Upper Rhine the German imperial army under Prince Louis of Baden took Landau in September, 1702. In Northern Italy, during the year 1702, a French force under the Duke of Vendôme gained the battle of Luzara over the Austrians. In Piedmont the German imperial army under Prince Eugene conducted a campaign against the French and Spanish forces under King Philip V. During the year 1702 the united fleets of England and Holland were repulsed in an attack upon the Spanish port

of Cadiz; but they succeeded in destroying in the Bay of Vigo the entire Spanish West India fleet laden with the treasures of gold and silver from Spanish America, October 22, 1702.

As a reward for his brilliant services in the campaign of 1702, the Earl of Marlborough was created Duke of Marlborough. In 1703 he completed the conquest of the entire Electorate of Cologne, while the allied forces also took Limburg and Guelders. In Germany during the same year the French king's ally, the Elector of Bavaria, repulsed a two-fold invasion of his dominions and seized Ratisbon. A French army under Marshal Villars crossed the Rhine and effected a junction with the Elector of Bavaria in the valley of the Danube.

The Austrian forces were then diverted by Count George Ragotzky's formidable insurrection in Hungary, which continued until 1711; and the Elector of Bavaria might have taken Vienna had he not postponed his attack until the season was too far advanced. The Elector instead undertook the conquest of the Tyrol, and seized Innsbruck; but he was driven out of that mountain country by the brave Tyrolese, who rose *en masse* to resist his invasion. In the meantime the French on the Rhine had taken Breisach, defeated the German imperial army at Spirebach and recaptured Landau.

The German imperial army now invaded Bavaria in two columns and menaced Munich. By a skilful maneuver, the French army under Marshal Villars interposed between these two imperial columns, and defeated the column under Count Styrum at Hochstädt, September 20, 1703. Marshal Villars again urged the Elector of Bavaria to invade Austria, but the Elector refused to venture upon so bold a movement, whereupon Villars asked his king to relieve him of his command, and he was succeeded by Marshal Marsin. Soon afterward the Elector of Bavaria endeavored to carry out the plan of Marshal Villars; but it was too late, as the decisive moment had passed away.

The advantages which Marshal Villars gained for France were lost by the defection of Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, who, offended because he did not receive the command of the French and Spanish forces in Italy, now deserted the cause of his son-in-law, King Philip V. of Spain, and joined the Second Grand Alliance, October 25, 1703, thus cutting off the communication between France and Italy. King Pedro II. of Portugal was also induced to enter into a perpetual alliance with England and Holland, through the efforts of the Admiral of Castile, who considered himself slighted by King Philip V. of Spain. These accessions so emboldened the allies that they now not only pushed the claims of the Austrian Archduke Charles in Italy and the Spanish Netherlands, but resolved to substitute him for the Bourbon Philip of Anjou on the throne of Spain itself.

While the tyranny of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany had caused a rebellion of his Protestant Hungarian subjects under Count George Ragotzky in 1703, religious persecution drove the Huguenots of the region of the Cevennes to rebellion against the bigoted and tyrannical King Louis XIV. during the same year, 1703; and the rebellion was suppressed with difficulty in 1704 by Marshal Villars, who had been sent into that mountain region after his return from his campaign in Germany; but tranquillity was not fully restored until 1710.

In 1704 the French regained their communication with Italy by reconquering the northern part of Piedmont, but they encountered serious reverses in every other quarter during the year. The Archduke Charles of Austria, with the assistance of an English and Dutch army under the Earl of Peterborough, landed in Portugal; but his advance into Spain was checked by the French army under the Duke of Berwick, the illegitimate son of the ill-fated James II. of England.

The English fleet under Admiral Sir George Rooke accidentally gained possession of the strong rocky fortress of Gibraltar, in the South of Spain, August 4, 1704. It had been weakly garrisoned by the Span-

GIBRALTAR.

iards, who considered it impregnable on account of its great natural strength. A party of English sailors from Rooke's fleet took advantage of a holiday, when the eastern side of the fortress had been left unguarded, by scaling that precipitous and almost inaccessible height, while another party stormed the South Mole; and Admiral Rooke took possession of the fortress in the name of the Queen of England. This achievement was by far the most important to England of any during the War of the Spanish Succession; as Gibraltar has ever since remained in her possession, and has been to her the key to the Mediterranean sea.

In 1704 the seat of war was transferred to Germany, and the forces of Austria and the German Empire were hard pressed by the French and the Bavarians. The allied English and Dutch army under the Duke of Marlborough was joined by the German imperial army under Prince Louis of Baden near Ulm, in the duchy of Würtemberg, and took the heights of Schellenberg by storm, thus gaining an important control of the Danube.

The allied army under the Duke of Marlborough crossed the Neckar, June 4, 1704, and, forcing its way into Bavaria, succeeded in effecting a junction with the German imperial army under Prince Eugene, who had advanced from Italy. The united armies, numbering eighty thousand men, won a brilliant victory over the combined French and Bavarian army of eighty thousand men under Marshals Marsin and Tallard and the Elector of Bavaria, at the small village of Blenheim, near Hochstädt, August 13, 1704. The victorious English and German imperialists lost thirteen thousand men, while the vanquished French and Bavarians lost thirty thousand. Marshal Tallard was taken prisoner; and all the French artillery, baggage and camp-equipage fell into the hands of the victors.

The disastrous issue of this battle compelled the French to fall back to the west side of the Rhine and to evacuate Germany. They were pursued across the Rhine by the victors; and the Duke of Marlborough took Treves and several other towns, and fixed his advanced posts upon the Saar. All the fortresses of Bavaria were surrendered to the German imperial troops, except Munich, which was dismantled; and the Elector of Bavaria retained only his appointment of Governor-General of the Spanish Netherlands, while his wife remained in Munich.

Thus the campaign of 1704 was favorable to the allies. The French had been driven from Germany; the English had gained possession of the key to the Mediterranean; and France was threatened with invasion by the allied army on the Moselle.

The victory of Blenheim produced great political consequences in England. The Tories had in the meantime slowly drifted back into their antipathy to a 'Whig war." The Duke of Marlborough sought to bind the Tories to his war policy in 1702 and 1703, by supporting a bill against occasional conformity, excluding the Nonconformists still more rigidly from all municipal rights, and by allowing the queen to set aside the tithes and first fruits hitherto paid by the clergy to the crown as a fund for the augmentation of small benefices. This fund is still called Queen Anne's Bounty. But the Lords steadily resisted the bill against occasional conformity, and the efforts of the Duke of Marlborough to bind the Tory Ministers to a support of the war were daily becoming more fruitless.

The higher Tories, under the leadership of the Earl of Nottingham, had thrown every obstacle in the way of the prosecution of the war, and finally resigned office in 1704; whereupon the Duke of Marlborough had a new Ministry appointed, consisting of the more moderate Tories who were still in favor of the war. Thus Robert Harley became Secretary of State, and the talented Henry St. John became Secretary of War. The Duke of Marlborough's march into Germany imbittered the political strife in England. The Tories and Jacobites threatened to bring the duke's head to the block if he failed in his campaign, and he was only saved from political ruin by the victory of Blenheim.

The Duke of Marlborough slowly and reluctantly drifted from the Tory party, which opposed the war, to the Whigs, who really supported his war policy. He took advantage of the victory of Blenheim to dissolve Parliament; and, according to his hopes, the elections of 1705 returned a majority in favor of the prosecution of the war. His efforts brought about a coalition of the Whig Junto and the moderate Tories who still supported him, thus foiling the hostile attacks of the extreme Tories, or peace party. The Duke of Marlborough secured the support of the Whigs by making the Whig William Cowper Lord Keeper and by sending Lord Sunderland as envoy to Vienna. But the duke encountered bitter disappointment abroad in the refusal of the German imperial and Dutch armies to join him in the campaign of 1705.

The year 1705 was marked by the death of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and the accession of his son JOSEPH I. to the hereditary Austrian territories and to the imperial throne of Germany by the choice of the Electors. The Hungarians under Count George Ragotzky were still in revolt against the House of Hapsburg, and all of Joseph's concessions did not induce them to cease their demand for a return to their former elective constitution.

A rebellion in Bavaria was suppressed by force, and the Emperor Joseph I. resolved to blot out that Electorate from the map of Germany. Its territories were partitioned among several princes; the Upper Palatinate being restored to the Elector-Palatine, from whose dominions it had been separated since the Thirty Years' War.

In Northern Italy, during 1705, the French under the command of the skillful Duke of Vendôme gained many advantages over the Austrians, and finally inflicted a severe defeat upon Prince Eugene at Cassano. In Spain, during the same year, the French were forced to raise the siege of Gibraltar; and the English under the Earl of Peterborough took Barcelona, thus securing the allegiance of the provinces of Catalonia and Valencia for the Archuke Charles of Austria, who was himself present at the surrender of Barcelona, and was hailed with acclamations as King of Spain.

The campaign of 1706 was a glorious one for the allies, who acquired the supremacy in the Spanish Netherlands, in Italy and in Spain. In the Spanish Netherlands the allied English and Dutch armies under the Duke of Marlborough defeated the French army of eighty thousand men under Marshal Villeroi in the decisive battle of Ramillies, May 23, 1706, thus placing the provinces of Brabant and Flanders in the possession of the allies. The Duke of Marlborough also took the towns of Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, Ostend, Menin, Dendermonde and Ath; and the Archduke Charles was proclaimed at Brussels.

In Italy, during 1706, the French under the Duke of Orleans, the nephew of Louis XIV., and Marshal Marsin laid siege to Turin; but the German imperial army under Prince Eugene, after being joined by the forces of that commander's cousin, Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, advanced to the relief of the city, and defeated the French so disastrously before the walls of the city, September 7, 1706, that they were obliged to raise the siege and evacuate Italy. Thereupon the Archduke Charles was proclaimed in Milan, and all Lombardy was occupied by the victorious German imperialists.

In 1706 the province of Aragon also proclaimed the Archduke Charles; and the allied English, Dutch and Portuguese armies under Lord Galway advanced from Portugal and captured Madrid, after Philip V. had fled from the city. But the Spanish people preferred the Bourbon king to the Austrian Hapsburg, and rose against the invaders, drove out the allied garrisons, and compelled the two allied armies to retreat into Valencia. The English took Alicante and Cartagena, but the French under the Duke of Berwick recaptured the latter town. During the same year Pedro II. of Portugal died, and was succeeded by his son JOHN V.

Humiliated by these reverses, Louis XIV. offered to abandon the whole Spanish in-

heritance, except the Italian possessions, to the Archduke Charles; but the allies demanded all, and so the war continued.

Fortune now smiled on the French arms in Spain. In the meantime Philip V. reëntered Madrid in triumph amid the rejoicings of the populace. The allied English, Dutch and Portuguese army under Lord Galway was almost annihilated by the French army under the Duke of Berwick in the decisive battle of Almanza, April 25, 1707, in which the allies lost all their standards, baggage and artillery. Thereupon the provinces of Valencia and Aragon submitted to Philip V.; and the towns of Lerida and Ciudad Rodrigo—the former on the frontier of Catalonia, and the latter on that of Portugal—were recaptured by the victorious French and Spanish forces. But Barcelona gallantly resisted the arms of Philip V. until the end of the war.

The allies were almost as unsuccessful in Northern Italy and in their invasion of France. Prince Eugene and the Duke of Savoy led their united armies into Provence and laid siege to Toulon, while the English fleet under Sir Cloudesley Shovel blockaded that great French port by sea; but a French force under Marshal Tessé advanced to the relief of the beleaguered city, and forced the allies to raise the siege after they had lost ten thousand men.

In Southern Italy the whole Kingdom of Naples was conquered for the Archduke Charles by a small German imperial army under Marshal Daun during the same year, 1707. In the Spanish Netherlands during that year the Duke of Marlborough was held in check by the French army under the Duke of Vendôme. On the side of the Rhine the French under Marshal Villars performed the brilliant exploit of forcing the lines of Stolhoffen, hitherto considered impregnable.

The year 1707 was rendered memorable by the constitutional, or Parliamentary Union of England and Scotland. For a long time the policy of uniting England and Scotland into one kingdom had been seriously considered by leading statesmen in the two kingdoms, but the project was long delayed by religious differences and commercial jealousies. Scotland would not bear any portion of the English national debt. England refused to yield any part of her monopoly of trade with her colonies. The English Churchmen longed for the restoration of Episcopacy in Scotland, while the Scotch Presbyterians refused to listen even to the legal toleration of Episcopalians.

The passage of an Act of Settlement by the Scotch Parliament in 1703 warned English statesmen of the danger of further delay. In this measure the Scotch Whigs, who cared only for the independence of their country, united with the Scotch Jacobites, who cared only for the interests of the *Pretender*, the son of the ill-fated James II. The Scotch Jacobites excluded the name of the Princess Sophia of Hanover from their Act of Settlement; while the Scotch Whigs introduced a provision that no sovereign of England should be recognized as sovereign of Scotland except upon condition of giving security to the religion, freedom and trade of the Scots.

The danger of the Scotch Act of Settlement was great, as it indicated a recognition of the Pretender in Scotland on the death of Queen Anne, and a consequent war between England and Scotland. But this danger was averted three years later by the wisdom and resolution of Lord Somers in bringing the question to an issue. By his firmness the jealousies and differences on both sides were put by; and an *Act of Union* was finally passed by the English Parliament in 1707, providing that England and Scotland should be united into one kingdom under the name of *Great Britain*, and that the succession to the crown of this United Kingdom should be governed by the provisions of the English Act of Settlement. The Scotch Church and the Scotch laws were left undisturbed; but all rights of trade were made common to both countries, and a uniform system of coinage was adopted. A single parliament was thenceforth to represent the United Kingdom at Westminster, and thus forty-five Scotch

members were added to the five hundred and thirteen members of the English House of Commons, while sixteen Scotch representative peers were added to the one hundred and eight members of the English House of Lords.

In Scotland the opposition to the Act was bitter and almost universal. The terrors of the Presbyterians were allayed by an Act of Security which became a part of the *Treaty of Union*, and which required every sovereign on his accession to take an oath to support the Presbyterian Church; but the enthusiastic Whig patriots and the fanatical Jacobites of Scotland would not be satisfied with any securities. The Scotch Jacobites sought the aid of French troops and plotted for a Stuart restoration. The Scotch national party threatened to secede from the Presbyterian Assembly which voted for the Union, and to establish a rival Parliament.

But in the end the good sense of the Scotch people, and the loyalty of the trading classes of Scotland to the cause of the Protestant succession, prevailed over all jealousies and opposition; and the Act of Union was adopted by the Scottish Parliament during the same year, 1707, when the Treaty of Union became a Parliamentary Act, which was signed by Queen Anne, who gave her assent in these noble words: "I desire and expect from my subjects of both nations that henceforth they act with all possible respect and kindness to one another, that so it may appear to all the world they have hearts disposed to become one people."

Time has answered all of Queen Anne's hopes. The two nations hitherto so hostile have remained one ever since the Treaty of Union in 1707 brought them together. The Union was soon acquiesced in as the best policy for both countries, and so it has indeed proved. England was thus freed from a constant danger of treason and war, and the Union has been of the greatest advantage to Scotland.

Says John Richard Green, in his *Short History of English People*, concerning Queen Anne's expressed hopes: "Time has more than answered these hopes. The two nations whom the Union brought together have ever since remained one. England gained in the removal of a constant danger of treason and war. To Scotland the Union opened up new avenues of wealth which the energy of its people turned to wonderful account. The farms of Lothian have become models of agricultural skill. A fishing town on the Clyde has grown into the rich and populous Glasgow. Peace and culture have changed the wild clansmen of the Highlands into herdsmen and farmers. Nor was the change followed by any loss of national spirit. The world has hardly seen a mightier and more rapid development of national energy than that of Scotland after the Union. All that passed away was the jealousy which had parted since the days of Edward the First two peoples whom a common blood and common speech proclaimed to be one. The Union between Scotland and England has been real and stable simply because it was the legislative acknowledgment and enforcement of a national fact."

The Duke of Marlborough had been rewarded with the royal manor of Woodstock, where the palace of Blenheim was afterward erected. It was the wise policy of the duke to govern England by holding the balance of power between the rival political parties. His victory at Ramillies made him strong enough to force Queen Anne to admit Lord Sunderland, the most ultra leader of the Whigs, to office, notwithstanding her hatred of the Whig party. The Tories were daily becoming more opposed to the war, and the Duke of Marlborough was obliged to rely upon the Whigs for support. They made him pay a dear price for their aid. They were the only party that supported the war to which the Duke of Marlborough was pledged; and he was powerless to oppose the measures of the Whigs, as he could not command the support of the Tories.

Not only was the Tory party opposed to the Duke of Marlborough, but Queen Anne's Tory principles caused her to lose faith in the great duke. She bitterly resented the

NOBLEMAN (SECOND THIRD OF 17TH CENTURY).

LOUIS XV. AND FRENCH GENERAL (1715).

AUSTRIAN GENERAL—OFFICER (1760-1775).

PRUSSIAN SOLDIERS (1760) — HUSSAR OFFICER — CAVALRY GRENADIER.

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appointment of Lord Sunderland to office, which the Duke of Marlborough had wrung from her by threatening to resign his command. The Whigs were resolved to drive the moderate Tories from office; and, as the Duke of Marlborough was powerless to oppose them, he was obliged to comply with their demands, against his own judgment. This compliance increased the queen's hatred towards the duke, and the haughty temper of the duke's wife won for her the dislike of her former royal friend. The Whigs were now supreme in England.

The constitutional Union of England and Scotland in 1707 excited some disturbances in Scotland, and the French king took advantage thereof by sending a fleet and five thousand men to escort the Pretender to the Frith of Forth. The French monarch's design was frustrated by the English fleet under Admiral Byng.

Though France was successful for the moment her situation was yearly becoming more critical. The kingdom was exhausted by the great expense of the struggle. Every means of raising funds had been resorted to —"loans at ruinous rates of interest, the creation of new and frivolous offices, assignments on the revenue of future years, vexatious taxes, immense issues of paper money." Fresh embarrassments followed each new expedient, and the French people were discontented, so that murmurs were heard on every side. Chamillart, Minister of Finance, was succeeded by Desmartes, Colbert's nephew; but the new Minister was unable to afford relief to the suffering nation. Louis XIV. had well-nigh ruined the industry of France to gratify his religious bigotry, and was now reaping the fruits of his unstatesmanlike policy.

Great expectations had been formed in England, which the results of the campaign of 1707 so miserably disappointed. In consequence Lord Godolphin and the Duke of Marlborough lost much of their popularity, and they were opposed even by members of the Cabinet. Though they persuaded Queen Anne to dismiss Secretary Harley and Mr. St. John, they perceived that their influence with Her Majesty and their power in Parliament had been considerably diminished, A. D. 1708.

Under these circumstances the Duke of Marlborough felt that his future interests depended upon a vigorous campaign, especially as the French under the Duke of Vendôme had by treachery gained possession of Ghent and Bruges, thus regaining some of their lost ground in the Spanish Netherlands. The Duke of Marlborough, at the head of the English and Dutch army in the Spanish Netherlands, was reinforced by the German imperial army under Prince Eugene; and the two great generals increased their military renown by their brilliant victory over the French army under the Dukes of Vendôme and Burgundy at Oudenarde, on the Scheldt, July 11, 1708. Soon afterward the allies took Lille from Marshal Boufflers after a long and difficult siege, October 22, 1708, thus opening the way to Paris. They also rescued Brussels from the Elector of Bavaria, and recovered Ghent and Bruges, thus regaining all of Spanish Flanders and occupying part of French Flanders.

In the Mediterranean during 1708 the English fleet under Admiral Sir John Leake received the submission of the island of Sardinia to the Archduke Charles of Austria, and established a British garrison at Port Mahon. The islands of Majorca and Iviça had already declared for the Archduke Charles.

These brilliant successes of the allies in the campaign of 1708 raised their confidence to the highest pitch; and Lord Godolphin and the Duke of Marlborough found the English Parliament willing to grant additional supplies for the war, while the Dutch agreed to augment their troops, and the German imperialists promised to show more activity.

King Louis XIV. was disheartened by defeat, his treasury was exhausted, and his counsels were distracted. In addition to her military reverses, France was beginning to suffer the horrors of famine, caused by the severity of the winter of 1708–'9, which

froze the vineyards, orchards and the grain already sown. Whole families of poor were frozen to death in their miserable hovels. Even the Rhone was frozen over, and the Mediterranean seemed almost transformed into a polar sea. The misery of the French people produced a universal outcry for peace throughout the kingdom, and the popular discontent manifested itself in riots and other violent demonstrations.

Humiliated and chagrined, Louis XIV. was obliged to heed the outcry of his subjects for peace; but the allies, doubting his sincerity, scornfully rejected his overtures, and demanded the most humiliating terms as the price of peace—terms which he could not accept without sacrificing his honor and dignity. They demanded that he should himself aid them in driving his grandson Philip V. from the throne of Spain. He refused to entertain such a proposition, and appealed to the patriotism of his subjects to sustain him in another effort.

The haughty and insolent demands of the allies aroused the pride of the French people, who, even in their distress, revolted at such indignity, and resolved to support their king in continuing the war rather than submit to such humiliation. The French king and many of his nobles sent their plate to the mint, and by a series of vigorous measures funds were raised for the expenses of the war during the ensuing year, while the sum of thirty-five millions was obtained from the Spanish West Indies.

The great loss of the allies in the battle of Malplaquet caused the Tory enemies of the Duke of Marlborough to raise the cry of a "deluge of blood" in order to make him unpopular in his own country. England was flooded with pamphlets and other publications against the great duke, who was abused, ridiculed, accused of prolonging the war for his own gratification and profit; and even the courage of this greatest of England's generals was questioned. The efforts of his Tory enemies succeeded, and the English people were induced to consider the greatest Englishman of the time as his country's worst enemy. His brilliant services in so nobly sustaining the glory of England abroad were simply regarded by the English populace as evidences of a criminal ambition.

In 1709 the able Marshal Villars was assigned to the command of the French army in the Spanish Netherlands. The allied English, Dutch and German imperial armies under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene captured Tournay, and defeated the French army of eighty thousand men under Marshals Villars and Boufflers in the bloody battle of Malplaquet, September 11, 1709, in which Marshal Villars was himself wounded and borne from the field, and his army fled with the loss of ten thousand men, while the victorious allies lost twenty-thousand. The vanquished French army retreated in good order to Valenciennes, and Marshal Villars wrote to his king that another such defeat would secure France against the efforts of the Second Grand Alliance. Mons surrendered to the allies immediately after the battle, and was occupied by them.

In 1710 Louis XIV. again solicited peace, offering to make great concessions to the allies. He even offered to recognize the Archduke Charles as King of Spain, to furnish no more assistance to his grandson Philip V., and even to supply the allies with money to prosecute the war against him. But the allied powers demanded that Louis himself should send an army into Spain to assist in driving out his grandson. This insulting demand Louis rejected with scorn, saying: "If I must continue the war, I should rather fight against my enemies than against my own grandson." The French people, who had clamored for peace, shared the indignation of their monarch, and were resolved not to submit to any such degrading conditions.

Louis XIV. was much encouraged by the successes of his arms in Spain during the year 1710. The campaign opened with the victories of the Austrians under Count Stahremberg in the battles of Almenara and Saragossa; but afterward the entire English corps under Stanhope was captured by the

Duke of Vendôme, after a severe battle at Brihuega, December 9, 1710. The Duke of Vendôme defeated Stahremberg at Villaviciosa, after a bloody battle of two days, December 11, 1710. These two great victories secured Philip V. on the throne of Spain, and the Archduke Charles of Austria was driven from that country.

A change of opinion with regard to the war had taken place in England, which resulted in the expulsion of the Whigs from office and the accession to power of the Tories, who opposed the war. The English people had by this time become weary of a struggle in which they bore the chief burdens and reaped few advantages. Queen Anne, a woman of feeble mind, had long been under the influence of the Duchess of Marlborough, who did not always use her power with discretion, but behaved toward the queen in a haughty and insolent manner.

A new favorite, Mrs. Masham, now supplanted the Duchess of Marlborough in the queen's favor, and was influenced by Secretary Harley and Mr. St. John to induce Her Majesty to make a complete change in the administration. This would not have been possible had the Whigs continued to enjoy the confidence of the English people, but many circumstances contributed to diminish their popularity.

The burden of taxation which the expenses of the war occasioned began to excite general dissatisfaction when frequent but useless victories ceased to excite joy, especially as the allies contrived that "England should fight for all and pay for all." The English people regarded the rejection of the French king's peace proposals, through the influence of the avaricious Duke of Marlborough and the vindictive Prince Eugene, as the triumph of private interest and private ambition over public policy. The Duke of Marlborough had incurred the hatred of the people by his avarice, having greatly enriched himself by his share in army contracts.

In the midst of the general discontent of the English nation with the rule of the Whigs, the Tories raised the cry that the Church was in danger, because of the favor which the Whig party showed to the Dissenters, or Noncomformists. Instead of allowing this imputation to refute itself, the Whigs unwisely endeavored to silence the clamor by force. Dr. Henry Sacheverell preached a sermon before the Lord Mayor of London in St. Paul's Cathedral severely censuring the Dissenters and advocating the exploded doctrines of absolute passive obedience and non-resistance.

Though Sacheverell's sermon was a poor and contemptible production, the violence of party spirit caused it to be printed and forty thousand copies of it to be sold in one week. It would have probably been forgotten in another week had not Lord Godolphin, who was personally assailed in the House of Commons, persuaded his partisans to subject the preacher to a Parliamentary impeachment. The common sense of the English nation revolted from such an absurd proceeding. The generous feeling of the nation was enlisted on the side of Dr. Sacheverell, and this sympathy was soon transferred to his cause. During his trial the populace manifested the most lively zeal in his behalf; and when he was convicted, the House of Lords, dreading popular tumults, passed a sentence so lenient that the Tories hailed it as a triumph for their party.

The persecution of Sacheverell led to the expulsion of the Whig party from power. Aware of their unpopularity, Queen Anne dismissed all her Ministers except the Duke of Marlborough, and formed a Tory Cabinet in which Messrs. Harley and St. John were the leading members. Mr Harley was soon created Earl of Oxford, and Mr. St. John became Viscount Bolingbroke. Parliament was dissolved, and the elections returned a Parliament with an overwhelming Tory majority, A. D. 1711. The new Tory Ministry, however, for the time adhered to the war policy of their Whig predecessors; and the new Tory House of Commons voted adequate supplies for the prosecution of the war.

Early in 1711 an event occurred which

changed the views and situation of all parties. This was the death of the Emperor Joseph I. of Germany, and the accession of his brother, the Archduke Charles, the competitor of Philip of Anjou, to the thrones of Austria and the German Empire, with the title of CHARLES VI. The union of the crowns of Spain and Germany, in the person of a prince of the House of Hapsburg, was as alarming to the other powers of Europe as the union of the crowns of Spain and France, under a prince of the House of Bourbon.

The Duke of Marlborough fought his last campaign in 1711, during which he stormed and carried the intrenched camp of Marshal Villars at Arleux and captured the strongly fortified town of Bouchain; but while he was winning these successes on the frontier of France and the Spanish Netherlands the malice of his Tory enemies in England was too strong for him; and, being charged with avarice and corruption in enriching himself in army contracts, he was condemned by a vote of the House of Commons and deprived of his command and all his civil offices, and was succeeded in his command by the Duke of Ormond, who had secret orders not to fight. The Duke of Marlborough at once left England, being then sixty-one years of age.

Such was the treatment accorded by his own countrymen to the general who, in an unbroken career of good fortune, took every fortress which he besieged and won every battle which he fought. He was one of the greatest statesmen, and unquestionably the ablest general, that England ever produced. He was remarkably handsome, and was gifted with a serenity which few things could ruffle. He possessed unshaken courage, an ardent and venturesome nature, which was held in check by a cool, clear judgment, which was never influenced by personal feelings. He had an extraordinary capacity for enduring fatigue, and he sometimes passed fifteen hours on horseback. His manners were perfect, and a striking trait of his character was his courtesy to every one.

The great duke was passionately fond of his wife, and his love for her was the only strong feeling of his otherwise purely intellectual nature. He was absolutely without feeling in everything else, hating no one, loving none, and regretting nothing. The passions which swayed others, whether noble or ignoble, were simply regarded by him as elements in an intellectual problem that required patience for its solution. He was insensible to the finer feelings of human nature; and, although he was a man of real greatness, he loved money simply for money's sake, and stained his great fame by his avarice and peculation.

In the disgrace of the Duke of Marlborough—whom political circumstances had gradually drawn from the Tory party until he had become the most influential leader of the Whig party—the chief supporter of the war policy lost his influence in public affairs in England; and before the close of the campaign of 1711 the new Tory Ministry of England was secretly negotiating with France for peace, and a preliminary treaty was signed between England and France at London in October, 1711.

As early as January, 1712, conferences for peace were opened at Utrecht, in Holland, through the influence of England under her Tory Ministers, who, after many disgraceful intrigues, sacrificed the interests of their country to party purposes. Eighty plenipotentiaries of the allied powers met three envoys on the part of the King of France. Owing to the opposition of the Dutch and German imperial ambassadors, negotiations progressed very slowly.

The interests of France in the peace congress at Utrecht were materially improved by the brilliant successes of Marshal Villars, who, in the campaign of 1712, totally outgeneraled Prince Eugene, defeated and captured an allied force under the English Duke of Albemarle at Denain, July 24, 1712, and recovered Douay, Le Quesnoy and Bouchain in quick succession, thus wresting from the allies all their acquisitions in the North of France.

In the meantime Louis XIV. met with

many sad domestic afflictions. His only legitimate son, the Dauphin, died in April, 1711; leaving three sons—the Duke of Burgundy, King Philip V. of Spain, and the Duke of Berry. The young Duke of Burgundy succeeded his father as heir to the crown of France. His wife, Adelaide of Savoy, who was greatly beloved by Louis XIV. and his court, died of a malignant fever in February, 1712; and her husband died of the same disease six days later. Their eldest child, the youthful Duke of Brittany, then became heir to the French throne, but also died three weeks later. His brother, the little Duke of Anjou, the next heir to the French crown, was a weak and sickly child; and in case of his death King Philip V. of Spain would have become heir to the throne of France.

This threatened union of the crowns of France and Spain alarmed the allied powers, and the Tory Ministers of England were obliged to threaten that they would renew the war unless Philip V. of Spain renounced his claim to the French crown, A. D. 1712. France and Spain conceded this point, thus facilitating the conclusion of a definitive treaty of peace between France and England, to the great disgust of the Dutch and the German Emperor. Finally, April 11, 1713, the Peace of Utrecht was signed by the plenipotentiaries of France, England, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Prussia and Savoy.

By the Peace of Utrecht, England and the other allied powers recognized Philip V. as King of Spain on condition that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united; while Louis XIV. acknowledged Queen Anne as the rightful sovereign of England and the Elector George of Hanover as her rightful heir and successor. England received the fortress of Gibraltar and the island of Minorca from Spain, and Nova Scotia, Newfoundland and the Hudson's Bay Territory from France. The Dutch were allowed to garrison a line of frontier fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands, as a barrier against France. France recovered Lille and agreed to dismantle the fortifications of Dunkirk. Philip V. of Spain agreed to cede Milan, Naples, the island of Sardinia and the Spanish Netherlands to the Austrian Hapsburgs; and he also ceded the island of Sicily to Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy with the title of king. The Duke of Savoy recovered his lost territories, which were divided from the dominions of France by the water-shed of the Alps. The new Kingdom of Prussia was recognized; and Louis XIV. ceded to its king, as representative of the House of Orange, the principality of Neuchâtel, in Switzerland; while King Frederick I. of Prussia relinquished his claims to the principality of Orange.

The Emperor Charles VI. of Germany refused to accede to the treaty of Utrecht, so that hostilities continued between France and the German Empire. In the campaign which followed, the French under Marshal Villars achieved brilliant successes in the Palatinate, defeating the German imperial forces, and capturing Spires, Worms, Landau and Freiburg. These reverses of the imperial arms induced the Emperor Charles VI. to consent to peace, and a series of peace conferences were held by Marshal Villars and Prince Eugene. When the two great generals met in friendly conference for the first time on this occasion, Prince Eugene said to Marshal Villars: "We are not enemies. Your enemies are at Versailles, and mine are at Vienna."

Accordingly the Peace of Rastadt was concluded between France and Austria, March 7, 1714. By this treaty the Austrian Hapsburgs received the Spanish Netherlands, the Duchy of Milan, the Kingdom of Naples, and the island of Sardinia—all of which were thus separated from the dominion of the King of Spain; while the Emperor Charles VI. recognized Philip V. as King of Spain. By this treaty the Emperor also allowed the exiled Electors of Bavaria and Cologne to return to their dominions; and Louis XIV. recognized the new Kingdom of Prussia by acknowledging the royal title of FREDERICK WILLIAM I., who became King of Prussia upon the death of his father Frederick I., in 1713. The Peace of Baden, between France and the German

Empire, in September, 1714, finally ended the War of the Spanish Succession. Thus, after a war which had been, on the whole, disastrous to Louis XIV., that monarch obtained honorable terms of peace; and the allied powers were punished for their former unreasonable and insolent demands.

The conduct of the Tory Ministry of the Earl of Oxford and Lord Bolingbroke in concluding the Peace of Utrecht aroused fierce party contests in England. The Whigs denounced the treaty as an absolute surrender of the fruits of English victories and a wanton sacrifice of the advantages which England might have claimed from the success of her arms. The Tories reproached the Whigs for continuing the war unnecessarily after all its reasonable objects had been gained. The English people generally disliked the treaty, and the House of Commons rejected the commercial treaty with France by a majority of nine votes.

The removal of the Earl of Oxford from the head of the Ministry through the influence of the Jacobites, and the formation of a more ultra Tory Cabinet under Lord Bolingbroke, who was favorably disposed toward the House of Stuart, gave ground for popular apprehensions, especially as the Jacobites openly demanded that the Pretender, the son of James II., be declared the heir to the English throne. Lord Bolingbroke would have brought about such a result could he have induced the young Stuart to become a Protestant. The Whigs accordingly raised the cry that the Protestant succession was in danger, and the alarm which they thus spread throughout the kingdom recovered for their party a large share of its former popularity.

In the midst of these violent party contests in England, Queen Anne died of apoplexy, August 1, 1714. The reign of "Good Queen Anne" has not only been distinguished for the great military triumphs of the Duke of Marlborough, and for the Parliamentary, or constitutional Union between England and Scotland in 1707, but also for the brilliant galaxy of writers who have made the period of her reign memorable as the *Augustan Age of English Literature*, while the reign of her great contemporary, Louis XIV., had also become distinguished as the Augustan Age of French Literature, as already noticed. The great literary lights of this Augustan Age of English Literature were the great poet Alexander Pope, the political writers Joseph Addison, Sir Richard Steele, Jonathan Swift and Lord Bolingbroke, and Daniel Defoe, the author of *Robinson Crusoe*.

Queen Anne's death ended the Stuart dynasty. Her husband, Prince George of Denmark, had died several years before her. As all her nineteen children had died before her, she was succeeded on the throne of Great Britain and Ireland by the Elector George of Hanover, the son of the Princess Sophia, the granddaughter of James I. Thus, in accordance with the Act of Settlement, passed by the English Parliament in 1701, the German House of Hanover, or Brunswick—the Guelfs, or descendants of the famous Henry the Lion, Duke of Bavaria and Saxony, the great rival of the chivalrous German Emperor Frederick Barbarossa—ascended the British throne, which they have ever since occupied.

Peace came none too soon for France, whose condition, in consequence of the long and expensive wars occasioned by the ambition of her warlike monarch, was at this time most deplorable. The public debt was enormous, the nation was almost financially ruined, and the resources of the kingdom were almost exhausted; and nothing but a long period of peace would enable the country to recuperate. The revenues were mortgaged for many years to come, as the national credit was almost destroyed. Agriculture, manufactures and all branches of industry were reduced to the lowest state of depression. Bankruptcy was general throughout France, while thousands of the laboring classes were perishing by famine and disease. Such was the dear price paid by Louis XIV. to seat a Bourbon on the throne of Spain, while that kingdom was deprived by treaty of some of its most valuable foreign possessions.

The great talents of Louis XIV. and his rich inheritance would have given him a leading power among nations in any case; but his immoderate thirst for conquest made him the scourge of Europe, instead of its benefactor. He was obliged to replenish his treasury, so drained by his costly and ruinous wars, by resorting to the most oppressive measures to wring supplies from his starving subjects.

Conscious of his failures and the worthlessness of the military glory which he had cherished in his younger and more prosperous days, Louis XIV. sought refuge in an abject superstition which inflicted a final injury upon his kingdom. Influenced by his confessor, the Jesuit Le Tellier, he bitterly persecuted the new Catholic sect of *Jansenists*—the followers of Jansen—the steadfast opponents of the moral, political and doctrinal system of the Jesuits.

The assistance which Louis XIV. rendered the Pretender James Stuart in his invasion of Scotland in 1715, and the French king's evasion of several other articles of the Peace of Utrecht, would probably again have broken the peace of Europe had the life of the "Grand Monarque" been pro longed. But his health had been failing for some time. Feeling that his end was approaching, he appointed a Council of Regency under the presidency of the Duke of Orleans to conduct the government during the minority of his great-grandson, a child of five years, who had become the heir to the French throne in consequence of the death of the king's legitimate children and grandchildren. In order to provide for the succession in case of the little prince's death, Louis XIV. caused his two sons by Madame de Montespan—the Duke of Maine and the Count of Toulouse—to be legitimated and placed in the line of succession.

Louis XIV. was soon seized with a violent fever; and on his death-bed he addressed to his great-grandson and heir the following admonition, which was a condemnation of his own life-long policy: "Live at peace with your neighbors. Do not imitate me in my fondness for war, nor in my exorbitant expenditure. Endeavor to relieve the people at the earliest possible moment, and thus accomplish what, unfortunately, I myself am unable to do." Louis XIV. died at Versailles, September 1, 1715, at the age of seventy-seven years, and after a reign of seventy-two years, or fifty-four from the expiration of the regency. His great-grandson Louis XV. then began his long reign of fifty-nine years, A. D. 1715–1774.

SECTION II.—THE NORTHERN WAR.

WHILE the war of the Spanish Succession was distracting the South and West of Europe for twelve years, A. D. 1702–1714, the North and East of the same continent were convulsed for the first twenty-one years of the eighteenth century, A. D. 1700–1721, by the great *Northern War* between the Czar Peter the Creat of Russia and King Charles XII. of Sweden.

Peter the Great, as we have already seen, had become sole Czar of Russia in 1689. Charles XII., as we have seen, had become King of Sweden in 1697, in the same year in which the Elector Frederick Augustus II. of Saxony had been elected King of Poland with the title of Frederick Augustus I. Frederick IV. had become King of Denmark in 1699, as also noticed in a preceding part of this volume.

In 1700 Charles XII., the young King of Sweden, was only eighteen years of age; and the sovereigns of Russia, Poland and Denmark considered the time favorable for wresting from Sweden the provinces which she had formerly conquered. Peter the Great of Russia was desirous of the possession of some of the Swedish provinces on the east side of the Baltic; Frederick Augustus, King of Poland and Elector of Saxony, resolved upon

seizing Livonia; and King Frederick IV. of Denmark determined to appropriate unto himself Schleswig, which belonged to the Duke of Holstein, a brother-in-law of the young King of Sweden. An alliance against Sweden was accordingly concluded between the Czar of Russia and the Kings of Poland and Denmark, for the purpose of obtaining the coveted provinces by force. Almost at the same time, in the year 1700, the King of Denmark carried war into the dominions

CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN.

of the Duke of Holstein, the King of Poland marched into Livonia and fell upon Riga, and the Czar of Russia with eighty thousand men invaded Esthonia and laid siege to Narva.

In this crisis the young King of Sweden displayed a firmness and energy which surprised both his enemies and his counselors. He reassured his Senate by the spirited declaration: "I have resolved never to wage an unjust war, nor ever to close a just one except by the destruction of my enemies." This sentiment may have been sincere when uttered, but subsequent events contradicted it.

To the astonishment of all Europe, the young King of Sweden suddenly exhibited military talents. Having secured the alliance of England and Holland, whose fleets were sent to his assistance, and having determined upon carrying the war into Denmark, Charles XII. landed with an army on the island of Zealand, and laid siege to Copenhagen. Upon landing he put a Danish force to flight, and then for the first time he heard the general discharge of musketry loaded with ball. He asked Major Stuart, a British officer who stood near him, what was the cause of that whistling which he heard. Major Stuart replied: "It is the sound of the bullets which they fire against Your Majesty." The young Swedish king responded: "Very well, this shall henceforth

be my music." Copenhagen was only saved from the horrors of a bombardment by the payment of a heavy ransom. King Frederick IV. of Denmark, having invaded Holstein-Gottorp, and being completely hemmed in by the Swedes, was completely humbled after a campaign of six weeks, and found that nothing but a disadvantageous peace would save his kingdom from falling into the power of the Swedes. The Peace of Travendal was accordingly concluded between the Kings of Sweden and Denmark, by which Frederick IV. renounced his alliance with Russia and Poland, and agreed to indemnify the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp.

After humbling the King of Denmark, Charles XII., at the head of eight thousand Swedish troops, marched against the Czar of Russia, who, with eighty thousand men, was then besieging Narva. Although the Swedish king had but one tenth as many men as his antagonist, he did not hesitate to attack the army of Peter the Great, who was himself then absent. Having broken the Russian intrenchments by a heavy cannonade, Charles XII., on November 30, 1700, ordered a bayonet charge; and, under cover of a severe storm of snow, which was driven into the faces of the Russians by the wind, he assailed the enemy. The Russians were unable to stand their ground; and, after a terrible battle of three hours, their works were forced on all sides. The Russian loss was eight thousand killed and thirty thousand made prisoners. Many were drowned in the Neva by the breaking of the bridge. The Russians also lost all their baggage, stores and cannon. Charles XII. entered Neva as a conqueror, thinking that this great blow had completely broken the power of Peter the Great. The Czar, however, was not discouraged. He said: "I knew that the Swedes would beat us, but in time they will teach us to become their conquerors." After his defeat Peter evacuated the Swedish provinces and devoted his attention to disciplining his army.

Instead of following up his victory over Peter the Great, the Swedish king, after wintering at Narva, marched against Frederick Augustus of Poland, who had unsuccessfully besieged Riga the previous year. After defeating the Polish king in the bloody battle of Duna, in July, 1701, and obtaining full possession of the provinces of Livonia and Courland, Charles XII. marched into Poland. The Swedish monarch entered Warsaw on May 14, 1702, and soon afterward declared that he would not grant a peace to Poland until the Polish Diet had dethroned Frederick Augustus and elected another king in his place. On July 9, 1702, Augustus was defeated with heavy loss by Charles in a desperate engagement near Clissow, in a large plain between Warsaw and Cracow. The camp, baggage, artillery and military chest of Augustus fell into the hands of Charles, who soon afterward took possession of Warsaw.

While Charles XII. of Sweden was conquering in Poland, his most powerful enemy, Peter the Great of Russia, was reducing the Swedish provinces on the east side of the Baltic, and annexing them to the Russian Empire. Peter took Narva by storm, built the fortresses of Schlusselburg and Cronstadt, and caused the islands at the mouth of the Neva to be drained by serfs; and there he laid the foundations of a city which he named St. Petersburg, and which he intended should be the capital of the Russian Empire. In 1703 Peter compelled three hundred thousand people from Moscow and other Russian cities to settle at St. Petersburg. He also encouraged foreigners to emigrate thither. Famine and disease soon carried two hundred thousand of the settlers of the new city to their graves. Yet Peter was not discouraged, but he persevered in his enterprise; and, by his liberal and enlightened policy, foreign artisans and merchants were induced to emigrate to St. Petersburg.

Charles XII. defeated Frederick Augustus of Poland at Pultusk, May 1, 1703, and compelled him to retreat into Saxony, his hereditary dominions. Through the influence of the King of Sweden, Augustus was dethroned by the Polish Diet; and in July, 1704, Stanislas Leczinski, voiwode of Posen,

a creature of Charles XII., was elected to the throne of Poland by a Diet surrounded by Swedish soldiers. Resolving to recover the Polish crown, Augustus returned to Poland with an army of Saxons, and took Warsaw, but was at length forced to retire. Augustus afterward received the assistance of sixty thousand Russians, whom Peter the Great had sent to expel the Swedes from Poland; but Charles routed the different Russian divisions in succession, and

PETER THE GREAT OF RUSSIA.

struck such terror into their ranks by the rapidity of his movements that the Russians retired into their own territories, A. D. 1706.

In the meantime a victory gained by the Swedes over the forces of Augustus opened to the Swedish monarch the way into Saxony. Accordingly, Charles XII. invaded the Saxon dominions of Augustus, without asking permission of the Emperor of Germany, whose attention was too much engrossed by the War of the Spanish Succession to give any heed to the movements of the King of Sweden. Notwithstanding the strict discipline of the Swedes, they frightfully ravaged the Saxon territories. Augustus had now no other alternative than to consent to such terms of peace as the conquering King of Sweden chose to dictate. Under these circumstances the Peace of Altranstadt was concluded, September 24, 1706, on terms most humiliating to Augustus, who was required to renounce the crown of Poland for himself and his posterity, to dissolve his alliance with the Czar of Russia, and to surrender the Livonian Patkul to the Swedish monarch, who put him to a cruel death.

In September, 1707, Charles XII., at the head of forty thousand troops, reëntered Poland, where Peter the Great had been endeavoring to retrieve the affairs of Augustus. As the King of Sweden advanced, the

Czar retired into his own dominions. Charles resolved to march upon Moscow; and Peter, becoming alarmed at this bold movement of his antagonist, solicited peace; but Charles, who had determined to completely subdue his great rival, haughtily replied: "I will treat at Moscow." Charles now advanced into Russia, and directed his course toward Moscow. Peter destroyed the roads and desolated the country between Poland and Moscow, so that hunger, fatigue and constant partial actions would so weaken the Swedish army that it could not reach Moscow.

Charles XII., whose army was utterly exhausted, now resolved to march southward into the Ukraine, whither he had been invited by Mazeppa, Hetman of the Cossacks, who had resolved to throw off his allegiance to the Czar. Peter discovered the plans of the rebellious chief and thwarted them by the execution of his associates, and Mazeppa appeared in the Swedish camp as a fugitive rather than as a powerful ally.

Charles XII. had ordered a large army from Sweden, under General Löwenhaupt, to reinfore him. While on his march to join Charles, Löwenhaupt was defeated by the Russians in three battles with the loss of all his artillery, baggage and provisions; and he only succeeded in reaching the camp of Charles with a small force. The severity of the winter of 1708–'9 reduced the Swedish army to twenty thousand men. At one time two thousand were frozen to death before the eyes of the hard-hearted Charles XII.

Notwithstanding the misfortunes and sufferings of his army, the ambitious King of Sweden was still obstinately resolved upon the conquest of Russia. At length Charles laid siege to the strong town of Pultowa, on the frontiers of the Ukraine. When the Czar approached, with seventy thousand men, for the relief of the garrison, Charles hastened with the greater portion of his army to give battle to Peter, leaving the remainder to press the siege with vigor. On July 8, 1709, was fought the great battle of Pultowa, which ended forever the splendid career of Charles XII. of Sweden. In this battle Peter the Great and his subjects fully proved that they had profited by the lessons of their enemies. The Swedes charged with such impetuosity that the Russian cavalry were forced back, but the Russian infantry held their ground until the cavalry had rallied and again gone into the fight. In the meantime the Russian artillery had made frightful havoc in the Swedish ranks. Having left his heavy cannon in the morasses, Charles could not contend successfully against his antagonist; and, after a terrible battle of two hours, the Swedish army was hopelessly annihilated. Having been wounded during the siege of Pultowa, Charles was carried about the field in a litter, which was shattered to pieces by a cannon-ball while the battle was raging. The Czar's hat was pierced by a musket-ball; and his favorite general, Menschikoff, had three horses shot under him. Eight thousand Swedish troops lay dead on the sanguinary field, and six thousand were made prisoners by the victorious Russians; and after retreating to the Dnieper twelve thousand were compelled to surrender to the pursuing Russians, and the once-splendid army of Charles XII. was totally destroyed. The Swedish soldiers who were made prisoners by the Russians were dispersed over the vast Russian Empire, and not one of them ever returned to his native land. Many perished in the wilds of Siberia.

The once-conquering Charles XII. now became a helpless fugitive; and, with three hundred of his guards, he fled to the Turkish town of Bender, having lost in one day all what he had gained during nine years of war. The dethroned Augustus now reentered Poland and wrested the Polish crown from Stanislas Leczinski; and Denmark, Poland and Russia renewed their alliance against Sweden. King Frederick William I. of Prussia laid claim to certain Swedish possessions in Germany, and joined the coalition against Sweden, as did England also. Peter the Great invaded the Swedish provinces on the east side of the Baltic, the King of Denmark fell upon

PETER THE GREAT AFTER THE BATTLE OF PULTOWA.

Schleswig, and the Prussians seized upon Swedish Pomerania.

The Swedish monarch met with an honorable reception at the hands of the Turks. He lived at Bender in royal splendor as the guest of the Sultan. He did not entertain a single thought of returning to his kingdom without having first conquered Russia. Charles made use of all the means at his command to induce the Turks to make war on Russia, and at length he succeeded. A Turkish army of two hundred thousand men marched to the Pruth, where it was met by a Russian army under the Czar Peter. After four days of hard fighting, in July, 1711, Peter and his whole army would have been killed or made prisoners had not his wife Catharine corrupted the Turks with Russian gold and thus brought about an honorable peace. Charles could not repress his rage at finding all his hopes for the overthrow of his great rival thus blasted.

The obstinate Charles XII. still determined to remain in Turkey, even after the Sultan had ordered him to leave the Ottoman dominions; and the Porte found it necessary to employ forcible means to send him away. Arming his immediate attendants, about three hundred in number, Charles defied a Turkish army of twenty-six thousand men. After a fierce resistance, in which many of his attendants were killed, and the house in which he defended himself had been set on fire, Charles was made a prisoner. The Swedish monarch remained a captive in Turkey ten months longer, wasting his time in useless obstinacy.

In the meantime the Swedish army under General Steenbock had defeated the Danes and the Saxons at Gadesbusch, in Mecklenburg, and burned the defenseless town of Altona, but were afterward compelled to surrender as prisoners of war to the Czar of Russia. The Russian arms were making rapid progress in the Swedish province of Finland; and the Russian fleet gained a great victory over the Swedish navy near the island of Oeland, in the Baltic sea.

When Charles XII. learned that the council which governed Sweden in his absence was about to appoint his sister regent of the kingdom, and make peace with Russia and Denmark, he resolved to return to Sweden. The Swedish king left the Ottoman territories in October, 1714; and, after having traveled through Hungary and Germany he unexpectedly arrived at Stralsund, in Swedish Pomerania, after a journey of fourteen days on horseback.

At length the allied Danish, Saxon and Prussian armies laid siege to Stralsund. After a heroic defense on the part of the Swedes for over a year, Stralsund was surrendered to the besieging enemy, in December, 1715; whereupon the whole of Pomerania and the island of Rugen were taken possession of by the Prussians. Charles escaped to Sweden in a boat, and still obstinately refused to consent to a peace.

In 1716 Charles XII. invaded Norway for the purpose of humbling the King of Denmark for violating the Peace of Travendal. Charles soon returned to Sweden; and his attention was now occupied with the bold political schemes of his Prime Minister, Baron von Görtz, who was negotiating with Peter the Great for an alliance between Russia and Sweden, by which these two powers might dictate law to Europe, and place the Pretender James Stuart on the throne of England.

In 1718, the Swedish monarch invaded Norway a second time, and laid siege to the fortress of Frederickshall. Here the "Alexander of the North" found his death. While reconnoitering the works, during a terrific fire from the Danish batteries, on the night of December 11, 1718, Charles XII. was killed, whether by the bullet of an assassin, or by a grape-shot from the enemy, is a disputed point in history.

After greatly restricting the royal power, the Swedish Diet placed ULRICA ELEANORA, sister to Charles XII., on the throne of Sweden; and in 1719 Baron von Görtz was barbarously executed. In 1720 Ulrica Eleanora relinquished the royal dignity to her husband, FREDERICK of Hesse Cassel.

By the Peace of Stockholm with Poland, Prussia, Denmark and England, in 1720,

THE SWEDES CARRYING THE DEAD BODY OF CHARLES XII. FROM FREDERICKSHALL.

and by the Peace of Nystadt with Russia, in 1721, Sweden surrendered most of her foreign possessions in return for an indemnification in money. The Baltic provinces of Ingria, Esthonia and Livonia were ceded to Russia; the greater part of Pomerania to Prussia; and Schleswig and Holstein to Denmark. Sweden thus lost her rank as the great power of the North; while Russia, under the great Peter, began to control the destinies of the North and the East.

While Sweden was almost ruined by the mad ambition of Charles XII., Russia, under the illustrious Peter the Great, was taking her place as a leading European power. The acquisition of the Swedish provinces of Ingria, Esthonia and Livonia by the Peace of Nystadt opened a new epoch for Russia. As long as Moscow had remained the Russian capital the views of the Czars were more Asiatic than European, and the customs and manners of the Russians were more assimilated to those of Asia than to those of Europe; but since St. Petersburg, which was located nearer to the civilization of the West, had become the capital of the Empire and had risen into importance on account of the magnificence of its plan and of its buildings, Russia had become a European state.

Peter the Great wrote to his ambassador in Paris: "Apprenticeships usually end in seven years. Ours has lasted thrice as long; but, thank God, it is at length brought to the desired termination." The Czar had good cause to be proud of his work. In the first twenty-one years of the eighteenth century—the period which he had spent in learning, mainly from his enemies, the arts of conquering and governing—he had reorganized an army and created a navy, had built a city of palaces among the marshes of the Neva, had improved the administration of justice, had more than doubled the foreign commerce of Russia, had caused manufactures to spring up in his dominions, had built roads, dug canals, and introduced the printing press. By his genius, his personal energy and industry, he had promoted the civilization of Russia and placed her in the front rank among the powers of Europe, and had become one of the greatest of European monarchs.

Peter the Great promoted learning and refinement of a higher grade by the establishment of an Academy of Sciences. He remodeled the government and police upon the plan of other European states, thus increasing the Czar's power and diminishing that of the boyars. One of the innovations of Peter the Great which was productive of the most important consequences was the abolition of the dignity of Patriarch, and the creation of a Holy Synod as the chief ecclesiastical court of Russia, to which the Czar communicated his orders.

While Peter the Great was reforming his Empire he beheld with grief that his only son Alexis, the heir to the Russian throne, had joined the old Russian party in opposition to his father's reforms, and that he cherished an intention of restoring the old system and again making Moscow the Russian capital. The Czar vainly endeavored to bend his son's stubborn and defiant spirit and to make the prince a friend to European civilization. Alexis held fast to his opinions, and at length disappeared from Russia. Thereupon Peter the Great, anxious for the permanence of his institutions, ordered the arrest of his son, and caused him to be brought home a prisoner and condemned to death, A. D. 1722. It is disputed whether Alexis was executed, or whether he died in prison before execution.

The Senate and Synod of Russia in solemn assembly conferred upon Peter the Great the title of *Emperor of all the Russias*, and he richly merited the title of *Peter the Great*, which was bestowed upon him by all classes of his subjects, who hailed him as the Father of his Country. During the next few years Peter the Great waged war with Persia, by which he extended the Russian frontier on the south-east. Peter's favorite Prime Minister, Prince Menschikoff, had risen to his high station from the humble condition of a baker-boy. Peter's thirty-six years' reign ended with his death, in 1725.

SECTION III.—PERSIA, INDIA AND CHINA.

PERSIA.

IN THE reign of HUSSEIN, who became Shah of Persia in 1694, the Afghan tribes, who had long been subject to Persia, broke out in open rebellion. At the same time the Uzbeck Tartars ravaged the Persian province of Khorassan, and tribes of wild Kurds overran different portions of the Persian kingdom. Shah Hussein was wholly incompetent for the government of the kingdom in such an emergency. To add to his perplexities, the astrologers predicted the total destruction of Ispahan by an earthquake—a prediction which caused a universal panic in Persia. The Shah and his court fled from the capital; and the Mohammedan priests assumed the direction of affairs, prescribing every measure that fanaticism could suggest to avert the threatened vengeance of Heaven.

In this crisis it was announced that an Afghan army of twenty-five thousand men under Mahmoud Ghiljee had invaded Persia, A. D. 1722. The inhabitants of the Persian capital received this announcement as the signal of their doom, but made no adequate preparations to meet the Afghan invaders. The Afghan army of twenty thousand men advanced rapidly to Ispahan. The Persian army numbered fifty thousand men, who shone in gold and silver, while their pampered steeds were sleek from high feeding and repose. The Afghans were mounted on lean but hardy horses, and the only things that glittered in their camp were swords and lances.

The Afghans defeated the Persians at Gulnabad, nine miles from Ispahan, and compelled them to flee in disorder into the capital, which was at once besieged by the victorious Afghans. The inhabitants of Ispahan endured indescribable miseries during the siege, being obliged to subsist on human flesh; and the streets, the squares and the gardens were covered with putrefying carcasses. After enduring these miseries for seven months, Ispahan finally surrendered to the besieging Afghans, October 21, 1722.

The triumphant Afghans deposed Shah Hussein, and cast him into prison, where he was murdered. Amazed at his own success, Mahmoud Ghiljee at first adopted conciliatory measures; but when he found the inhabitants of Ispahan recovering from their apathy he became gloomy and suspicious, and resolved upon the frantic enterprise of exterminating all the male population of the Persian capital. He commenced by massacring three thousand of Hussein's guards and three hundred Persian nobles. He then proscribed every one who had been in the Shah's service. For more than a fortnight the streets of Ispahan flowed with blood, and the spirit of its inhabitants was so utterly broken that it was a common thing to see one Afghan leading three or four Persians to execution.

But the practice of these horrid massacres soon made Mahmoud Ghiljee a madman. He secluded himself in a dungeon for a fortnight, fasting and practicing the severest penances, hoping thus to propitiate Heaven. The only effect of this was to increase his madness; and at length his mother caused him to be smothered, in order to relieve him of his sufferings. He was succeeded as chief of the Afghans by his cousin Ashruff.

For seven years the Afghans under their chief, Ashruff, ruled Persia with the most horrible tyranny and cruelty, costing the country the blood of a million of its population. But the fortunes of Persia were soon retrieved, and Ashruff encountered a rival in every part of the country where he least expected opposition. TAMASP II., Shah Hussein's son and successor, had assumed the nominal sovereignty of the Persian kingdom, with the support of Khouli Khan, a chief who had risen from the humble condition of a common laborer to the leadership

of the Affshar tribe of Persia, and who declared his determination to drive every Afghan from the soil of Persia, A. D. 1730.

Ashruff, the Afghan chief, prepared for war, but was defeated by Khouli Khan in three great battles. The Afghan invaders were soon obliged to evacuate Ispahan, and were overtaken by Khouli Khan at the ruins of Persepolis, where they were again defeated, whereupon they fled to Shiraz. Their numbers still amounted to twenty thousand; but, as their leader deserted them to save himself, they dispersed, and very few reached their homes. Ashruff was overtaken in Seistan, and was slain by a Beloochee, who sent his head and a large diamond which he wore to Shah Tamasp II. "Thus was destroyed the grisly phantom which for seven wretched years had brooded over Persia, converting her fairest provinces into deserts, her cities into charnel-houses, and glutting itself with the blood of a million of her people."

In 1736 Khouli Khan, whose ambition was insatiable, deposed Tamasp II., the puppet sovereign whom he had established on the Persian throne, and made himself Shah of Persia with the title of NADIR SHAH. He soon reconquered several provinces on the Caspian which Peter the Great of Russia had wrested from Persia, and compelled the Sultan of Turkey to cede Armenia and Georgia to him after driving the Turks from Persia. He reduced the province of Khorassan, took the important cities of Candahar and Balkh, and subdued Afghanistan. In 1739 he invaded Hindoostan, and, by gaining a great victory over the Mogul army, became master of the Great Mogul Empire, occupying and plundering its capital, the great city of Delhi, and massacring a hundred thousand of its inhabitants. The Persian army returned home laden with a booty estimated at three hundred and fifty million dollars.

Under Nadir Shah the proud days of Persian splendor and glory appeared to be restored; and the boundaries of the Modern Persian Empire were the Caucasus mountain range, the Caspian Sea and the Oxus river on the north, the Indus river on the east, the Arabian Sea and the Persian Gulf on the south, and the river Tigris on the west.

But like Shah Abbas the Great, Nadir Shah, in the midst of his glory, was rendered miserable by domestic calamities; as he was, like Abbas the Great, a cruel tyrant to his subjects and to his own family. He was rendered haughty by ambition, and made suspicious and cruel by avarice. Suspecting his eldest son Reza to be plotting against him, he caused the prince's eyes to be put out. Said Reza: "It is not *my* eyes you have put out; it is those of Persia." Says Sir John Malcolm in his *History of Persia*: "The prophetic truth sank deep into the heart of Nadir, who, becoming from that moment a prey to remorse and gloomy anticipations, never knew happiness nor desired that others should feel it."

The remaining years of his life were marked by a frightful succession of cruelties. Whole cities were depopulated by his murders, and people left their abodes and sought safety in caverns and deserts. Finally his madness rose to such a height that he contemplated putting to death almost every Persian in his army. His barbarities eventually drove his subjects to despair; and he was assassinated by the captain of his guard, his officers being obliged to resort to this step to save their own lives, A. D. 1747.

After the assassination of Nadir Shah, Persia relapsed into anarchy, while the Afghans and the Uzbecks reasserted their independence. More than half a century of revolution and civil war followed, in consequence of the efforts of various competitors for the Persian crown. KERIM KHAN ruled Persia twenty years, from 1759 to 1779, and fought successfully against the Ottoman Turks and the Turkomans. But after his death the internal troubles of Persia were renewed, and the Russians took advantage of this anarchy to seize Georgia in 1783.

In 1795 AGA MOHAMMED KHAN made himself Shah of Persia, and became the founder of the Kadjar dynasty, which still occupies

the Persian throne. After usurping the sovereignty of Persia, Aga Mohammed Khan restored order to the kingdom which had been so long distracted by civil war and anarchy, and removed the capital of Persia from Ispahan to Teheran, which still remains the seat of government of that famous Oriental monarchy. He then invaded Georgia, captured and pillaged Tiflis, its capital, and massacred its inhabitants.

Aga Mohammed Khan was a man of an extraordinarily ferocious disposition, and treated his family with great cruelty. Although he was a sagacious and profound dissembler, he was rigorously just; and, although he was grasping and avaricious himself, he would not in the least tolerate peculation in his officials. He was particularly indulgent to his soldiers, and they repaid his kindness by their fidelity. In his latter years his temper, which had always been peevish and dangerous, became ferocious. His countenance is said to have resembled that of a shriveled old woman, and to have occasionally assumed a horrible expression, of which he was sensible, and for which reason he could not endure to be looked at. Even his confidential domestics approached him trembling, and their blood curdled at the sound of his shrill, dissonant voice, which was usually only raised by uttering a term of gross abuse or an order for punishment.

Aga Mohammed Khan was assassinated in 1797 by two of his attendants whom he had sentenced to death for disturbing him with their noise. He was succeeded on the Persian throne by his nephew FUTEH ALI SHAH, whose long reign of thirty-eight years, A. D. 1797–1835, was disturbed by several bloody wars with Russia which will be noticed in the history of the nineteenth century. Futeh Ali Shah's grandson and successor, SHAH MOHAMMED, had an uneventful reign of thirteen years, A. D. 1835–1848. Shah Mohammed's son and successor, NASR-ED-DIN, is the present sovereign, the events of whose reign will also be related in the chapter on the nineteenth century.

FALL OF THE MOGUL EMPIRE IN INDIA.

The remaining history of the Great Mogul Empire in India after Aurungzebe's death, in 1707, is but the melancholy record of a series of miserable struggles among Baber's descendants for the imperial sway, while the Empire was constantly becoming less worth the contest. Aurungzebe's death was immediately followed by a bloody civil war among his sons. Battles in which three hundred thousand men were engaged were fought near Agra, the capital of the Empire. Aurungzebe's second son, Mohammed Mauzm, defeated his brothers, who were slain in battle, and ascended the Mogul throne under the names of SHAH ALLUM, the "King of the World," and BAHADUR SHAH, the "Valiant King."

Shah Allum did not inherit his illustrious father's capacity or his good fortune. Involved in a struggle with the Sikhs of the Punjab, and perplexed by the restless ambition of his four sons, who appeared as competitors for the Mogul crown during his life-time, he died of grief and anxiety in 1712, after a reign of five years, leaving behind him the reputation of an accomplished, liberal and humane monarch.

After Shah Allum's death the usual civil war arose among his four sons, who, besides appealing to force of arms, resorted to every stratagem that fraud and treachery could suggest to base minds, in order to circumvent each other. Mauz Odin, the eldest of Shah Allum's four sons, by a superior stroke of perfidy, succeeded in overthrowing his three brothers and putting them to death. He thus gained the Mogul throne, and assumed the title of JEHANDER SHAH. His chief adviser was a concubine, one of the impure class of public dancers; and he was frequently seen near Delhi, walking with such abandoned females.

After reigning for a year and a half in voluptuous indolence, Jehander Shah was dethroned by the disaffected omrahs; whereupon his nephew FEROKHSIR seized the Mogul throne, after defeating and killing his uncle. But while Ferokhsir was invested with the external marks of authority,

the omrahs, who had raised him to the throne, reserved to themselves all the essential powers of government. Finding himself used as a mere puppet, Ferokhsir projected the overthrow of his masters, and slaughtered without compunction every person in his power from whom he could apprehend any possible danger. According to the genius of Oriental policy, Ferokhsir's plot for the destruction of the omrahs was secret and perfidious; but the omrahs detected the plot, counteracted it by their superior address, and caused Ferokhsir to be strangled after a reign of six years, A. D. 1718.

After the Mogul Empire had been kept in an unsettled condition for several years by the intrigues of the omrahs, MOHAMMED SHAH was raised to the throne about A. D. 1720. By an expert use of his power, Mohammed Shah effected the destruction of the omrahs who had contributed to his elevation; after which, considering himself perfectly secure from his enemies, he abandoned himself to a career of luxury and debauchery, and utterly neglected public affairs. The most destructive abuses and oppressions prevailed throughout the Mogul Empire.

Instead of offering a resolute opposition to the Mahrattas, who were then rapidly rising into power in Hindoostan, Mohammed Shah purchased peace of those marauders by paying them as a ransom a fourth part of his resources. With a weakness still more fatal, Mohammed Shah, finding it troublesome to collect this fourth part of his resources, permitted the ruthless Mahrattas to collect it in their own rough way, thus abandoning his subjects to the spoiler.

The misgovernment under Mohammed Shah brought the whole Mogul Empire into such a distracted condition that a treacherous omrah who hoped to aggrandize himself by the subjugation of his countrymen instigated Nadir Shah of Persia to invade Hindoostan in 1739. Marching into the country with a powerful army, Nadir Shah gained possession of Delhi through the treachery of Mohammed Shah's officers, who were rewarded by the following speech from Nadir Shah, exhibiting a strange medley of the monarch, the ruffian and the fanatic: "Are not you both most ungrateful villains to your king and country, who, after possessing such wealth and dignities, call me from my own dominion to ruin them and yourselves? But I will scourge you with all my wrath, which is the vengeance of God."

A Persian soldier seized a pigeon-seller's basket, and the pigeon-seller called out that Nadir Shah had ordered a general pillage; whereupon the streets of Delhi were soon filled with an excited populace, who attacked the Persians. A report was circulated that Nadir Shah was dead, and two thousand Persians were slaughtered before night. Nadir Shah himself was shot at. This incident aroused his tiger-like ferocity, and caused him to order a general massacre of the populace of Delhi. Before two o'clock one hundred thousand men, women and children of the great capital of the Mogul Empire in India lay dead in bloody heaps. During this atrocious deed the enraged Shah of Persia sat in the mosque at Delhi. None but his slaves dared approach him, as his countenance was dark and terrible. At length the Mogul Emperor, Mohammed Shah, attended by a number of his chief omrahs, ventured to come near him with downcast eyes. The omrahs who preceded Mohammed Shah bowed down their foreheads to the ground. Nadir Shah inquired sternly what they wanted. They exclaimed unanimously: "Spare the city!" Mohammed Shah did not utter a word, but the tears flowed fast from his eyes. The tyrant Shah of Persia was touched with pity for once; and, sheathing his sword, he said: "For the sake of the prince Mohammed, I forgive." The effect of his orders for the cessation of the massacre was so instantaneous that everything was calm in the Mogul capital in the course of a few minutes.

But when the massacre ceased the pillage only commenced, and the amount of the plunder has been estimated at from one hundred and fifty million to three hundred and fifty million dollars in our money. Dur-

ing the sacking of Delhi the gates of the city were closed, and the populace began to suffer the horrors of famine. Tucki, an actor, was playing before Nadir Shah, who was so delighted with the performance that he promised the actor any reward that he should ask. The noble Tucki fell on his knees, and exclaimed: "O King, command the gates to be opened, that the poor may not perish." The Shah of Persia granted the actor's request, and Tucki was rewarded for his benevolence by the blessings of his fellow-creatures.

After extorting from the wretched Hindoos all the money and treasures which they could furnish, Nadir Shah reinstated Mohammed Shah in his authority with pomp and solemnity, but took from him Afghanistan and Beloochistan, and gave him some good advice. The Shah of Persia then retired from Delhi, and returned in triumph to his own kingdom; but he was attacked on his way by the Afghans, who plundered his camp of much of his treasure, among which was the valuable diamond called *Koh-e-noor*, "the Mountain of Light."

No sooner were the Persian armies withdrawn from India than a general defection of the Hindoo dependents of the Mogul Emperor occurred. None were willing to yield obedience to a sovereign who was no longer able to enforce his authority. All the tribes of enterprising warriors that had sought refuge in the mountains during the period of Mogul splendor now descended into the plains, and seized the finest provinces of the Empire. Even private adventurers assumed the rank of sovereigns.

Nadir Shah of Persia was assassinated by his own officers in 1747, in the midst of the confusion prevailing in India in consequence of the dissolution of the Mogul Empire; and this event occasioned a fresh invasion of India by the Afghan chieftain Achmet Abdallah, who had been enabled to raise an army of fifty thousand men by seizing three hundred camels loaded with treasure. He marched against Delhi, and his destroying hosts ravaged India in the whole course of their advance.

Mohammed Shah died in the midst of this Afghan invasion, A. D. 1747, and was succeeded on the Mogul throne by his eldest son AHMED SHAH, who was unable to restore the declining fortunes of the Mogul Empire against the attacks of the Mahrattas and the Rohillas, who were troublesome in India itself; while the Afghans had established a powerful monarchy west of the Indus, and wrested the provinces of Moultan and Lahore, in the Northwest of Hindoostan, from the Mogul Emperor. The Mahrattas were a powerful tribe from the Vindhya mountains and the head of the Western Ghauts. They had already overrun the northern portion of the Deccan, and now penetrated into the imperial provinces of Agra and Delhi.

After Ahmed Shah had reigned seven years he was blinded and deposed by Gazi, an omrah of great influence, who enthroned ALLUMGHIRE, a descendant of Aurungzebe, and who had been for some time confined as a prisoner of state. The Mogul dominions were now subjected to the ravages of the Afghans, who marched an army to the very gates of Delhi, so that the Mogul capital was again at the mercy of an enemy. The Mogul Emperor had sunk so low that he begged the Afghan chief, Abdallah, not to leave him to the mercy of his own Vizier, the rebel Gazi, who had put out the eyes of Ahmed Shah. The Afghan chief gladly complied with the Mogul Emperor's request; and, after plundering the country of everything of value, he occupied Delhi, leaving Allumghire to regret his folly and to lament over his exhausted treasury. At length Gazi caused Allumghire to be assassinated, A. D. 1759.

The Afghans laid Delhi under such oppressive contributions that the inhabitants took up arms in despair. The Afghan chief was so enraged at this that he ordered a general massacre, which lasted a full week without cessation. At the same time many of the edifices were set on fire and consumed; and thus the great city of Delhi, one of the two capitals of the Mogul Empire—which, in the days of its glory, was said to

have been thirty-four miles long, and to have contained two millions of people—was reduced almost to a heap of ruins.

These repeated ravages of foreign invaders utterly broke the power of the Mogul Emperor. The native Hindoo chiefs usurped the governments of the various provinces of the Empire; and some of the provinces were seized by the English and the French, who now began their struggle with each other for supremacy in India.

But though the Great Mogul became a mere name it was a name that was highly venerated by the great mass of the Hindoos, who felt the advantage of having a sovereign who could protect them from the tyranny of the local governors and give them redress when needed. The Mogul Emperor's dominions gradually melted away until only the city of Delhi and its vicinity remained within the Great Mogul's jurisdiction, but while his title remained there were many popular reasons for respecting it.

Accordingly grants of land were sanctioned by his name, even in localities where he possessed no administrative authority. The Hindoo nabobs had their *firmans*, or commissions of appointment, under his nominal sanction, even though they tolerated no interference on his part in their respective governments; and the coin continued to be struck in his name long after he was reduced to the condition of a mere pensioner of the English East India Company.

The Mahrattas now made an effort to seize the Mogul Empire by one bold stroke; but Abdallah, the Afghan chief, was still in India, and he took the field against the Mahrattas. On January 7, 1761, was fought the great battle of Panniput, near Delhi, in which each army numbered about two hundred thousand men, and in which the Mahratta army was almost totally destroyed by the victorious Afghans, who then returned home.

The power of the Mogul Emperor was now at an end. Abdallah, the Afghan chief, conferred the Mogul sovereignty on SHAH ALLUM II., who was never really master of his own dominions, and who experienced a variety of the most cruel disasters. Finally the Mogul Emperor became involved in a quarrel with the English East India Company, whose troops defeated his army at Buxar in 1764, in consequence of which he fell completely under the influence of that powerful British mercantile corporation, thus putting an end to the influence of his name in Hindoostan, and rendering the English East India Company the predominant power in India. In the next half century India presents a perplexed chronicle of violent revolutions, occasioned by the various Hindoo chiefs who successively rose to more or less power, and their contests with the English East India Company.

The account of the last revolution that occurred in the Mogul dominions previous to the time that the Mogul sovereigns became pensioners of the English East India Company is interesting as a picture of Orientalism, and instructive as an example of the instability of human grandeur and the precarious condition of despotic governments. This revolution was inaugurated by Gholam Khadur, who had been disinherited by his father and driven from his presence for vice and crime. Shah Allum II., the Mogul Emperor, took him under his protection, treated him as his own son, and conferred upon him the second title in the Mogul dominions—the title of *Emir of Emirs*.

Gholam Khadur lived with Shah Allum II. at Delhi, and raised a force of about eight thousand troops of his own countrymen, the Moguls, assuming the command of this force himself. Gholam Khadur was of a passionate temper, haughty, cruel, ungrateful and debauched. Toward the close of the year 1788 Shah Allum II. had become suspicious that some of the neighboring rajahs would make efforts to conquer what remained of his dominions—a suspicion which was confirmed by the approach of a large army toward his capital commanded by a chief named Ismail, and aided by Scindia, the warlike Mahratta sovereign.

Gholam Khadur reassured Shah Allum

II., who was discouraged at the array of his formidable foes. Gholam urged the Mogul Emperor to march out, give his troops a supply of money, and he would lay his head on the enemy's being repulsed. When the Emperor replied that he had no money Gholam offered to advance an adequate sum himself, saying: "Only head the army. The presence of the monarch is half the battle." Shah Allum II. appeared to consent to do so, and requested Gholam to assemble the army, to pay the arrears of the troops and to inform them of the Emperor's purpose to lead them in person.

Gholam Khadur was therefore greatly astonished when on the following day he intercepted a letter from Shah Allum II. to Scindia, the hostile Mahratta chief, desiring him to make all possible haste and destroy Gholam, saying in the letter: "For he urges me to act against my wishes and oppose you." When Gholam thus discovered his sovereign's treachery he marched out with his troops, crossed the Jumna, and encamped on the other side of the river, opposite the fort of Delhi, the Emperor's residence. He then returned to the Emperor his intercepted letter, asking him if such conduct did not merit the loss of his throne. After a siege of several days, Gholam took the fort by storm, entered the palace in arms, appeared in the Emperor's chamber, insulted the old monarch in the most barbarous manner, knocked him down, knelt on his breast, dug out one of his eyes with his knife, and ordered one of the Emperor's servants to thrust out his master's other eye.

Gholam Khadur then pillaged the palace, proceeded to the Zezana, the residence of the Emperor's women, insulted the ladies, and tore the jewels from their noses, ears and limbs. Having lived with the Emperor, he was well acquainted with the different places where his treasures were concealed. He dug up the floor of the Emperor's own bed-room, where he discovered two chests containing one hundred and twenty thousand gold mohurs in specie—a sum equal to almost a million dollars in our money—which he took with vast sums besides.

Gholam Khadur perpetrated a nefarious trick of the meanest kind to get at the concealed jewels of the Emperor's women. He invited the Emperor's ladies and daughters to come and pay their respects to him, promising to free such as could best please him by their dress and appearance. The innocent, unthinking women brought out their jewels and adorned themselves in their most elegant attire to please Gholam. He ordered them to be conveyed into a hall, where he had prepared ordinary dresses for them. He compelled them to put on these dresses, by the aid of eunuchs; after which he took possession of their elegant dresses and jewels, and sent the women home to lament their own credulous vanity and to curse his treachery. Gholam insulted the Emperor's daughters by making them dance and sing, and brought the most beautiful of these,princesses, Mobaruck ul Mulk, into his presence; but she stabbed herself rather than submit her person to him.

Soon afterward Scindia, the Mahratta chief, came to the aid of Shah Allum II. ostensibly; but his real design was to make himself master of the remnant of the once-mighty Mogul dominion. Gholam Khadur fled, and took refuge in the fort of Agra, the other Mogul capital, a distance of one hundred and fifty miles south from Delhi. He was besieged there by Scindia's troops. Conscious that he would be taken prisoner if he remained there, he took advantage of a dark night by stuffing his saddle with a large stock of precious stones and fleeing with a few followers toward Persia. Unfortunately for him he fell from his horse the second night of his flight, and was taken prisoner by a party of cavalry which had been sent in pursuit of him. He was brought into the presence of Scindia, who exposed him for some time in irons and then in a cage, after which he ordered his captive's ears, nose, hands and feet to be cut off, and his eyes to be taken out, allowing him to die in that condition.

The victorious Scindia seized on the remnant of the Mogul Empire which he had professedly come to protect, and only left to

Shah Allum II., the nominal Mogul Emperor, the city of Delhi and its immediate vicinity, where, in his blindness, he remained an empty shadow of royalty.

In 1803 the English under Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterward Duke of Wellington, after defeating the Mahrattas in the battle of Assayé, placed the immediate sovereignty of Delhi and Agra under the English East India Company, which pensioned off the last descendant of the mighty royal race of Baber. Thus ended the Great Mogul Empire in India; though the title of *King of Delhi* continued for more than a century to be given to the lineal descendant of the Grand Mogul dynasty, who still resided at Delhi as a pensioner of the English East India Company.

CHINA.

As we have seen, the long reign of the Chinese Emperor Kang-hi extended into the eighteenth century. Kang-hi was unhappy in his domestic relations, on account of the conduct of his two sons, who rebelled against their father, and were successively banished from China. In 1720 Kang-hi received the congratulations of his whole Empire upon the signal victory over the Eleuts, or Thibetans, who had ravaged China for several years—a victory which made Thibet a dependency of the Chinese Empire. In November of the same year the Czar of Russia visited Pekin with a splendid retinue in European costume, and was received at the Chinese court with all due respect, but failed to secure the adoption of measures for the establishment of a free intercourse between the Chinese and Russian Empires, which had been the object of his visit.

Kang-hi died December 20, 1722, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, after a reign of sixty years; having just before his death declared his fourth son YUNG-CHING his successor. Yung-ching did not pursue his illustrious father's enlightened policy. The haughty conduct of the Jesuit missionaries in China aroused the new Emperor's suspicions; and he broke up their schools, imposed many restrictions upon them, and finally banished them from China, retaining at court only a few with whose services he could not dispense. The native Christians were then persecuted, not excepting those of the imperial family. It must be confessed that the intriguing spirit of the Jesuits had given Yung-ching some reasonable grounds for alarm, and that their extravagant assertions of papal supremacy might have infused suspicion of their designing to render the Emperor of China dependent upon the Pope of Rome.

In other respects Yung-ching was a good sovereign, assiduous and indefatigable in the discharge of his duties, steady and resolute in his disposition, endowed with a degree of eloquence and address, and attentive in answering the petitions which were addressed to him. He governed entirely himself, and no monarch was ever more absolute in his rule or more dreaded by his subjects. By this unlimited authority he was enabled to enforce a great many excellent laws and regulations, in the framing of which he had spent entire days and nights with the most unrelenting industry and perseverance. The most certain method of gaining his favor was by presenting him with some scheme tending to the public welfare or to the relief of his subjects in times of famine and pestilence—in the execution of which he spared no pains, if the measure seemed practicable. He preserved peace during his reign, and by his prudent precautions he averted the horrors of those famines and pestilences that periodically devastated China.

The city of Pekin was almost destroyed by an earthquake, November 13, 1731—the severest earthquake that had ever been felt in China, and in which four hundred thousand persons are said to have perished. The first shocks were so sudden and so violent that a hundred thousand of the inhabitants of the Chinese capital were buried in the ruins of their houses. Three hundred thousand people perished in the surrounding country, and entire villages were laid prostrate. The Emperor Yung-ching was deeply affected by the great calamity, and ordered an account to be taken of the families that

had suffered by it, with an estimate of the damage it had occasioned, while he himself advanced considerable sums for the relief of his suffering subjects.

Yung-ching died in 1736, and was succeeded on the Chinese throne by his illegitimate son KIEN-LUNG, who, upon his accession, made a vow that if, like his grandfather Kang-hi, he were permitted to reign sixty years he would then abdicate his throne. In the estimation of Europe, Kien-lung was the greatest of the sovereigns of the half-civilized nations during the last half of the eighteenth century.

Kien-lung's long reign was spent almost entirely in wars with the barbarous nations on the entire western frontier of China. These wars were mainly a series of ruthless massacres. The Chinese conquered the greater part of Central Asia. The Emperor Kien-lung always thought that he had a just cause when he massacred whole tribes. After the defeat and massacre of the Kalmuck Tartars, he erected a stone tablet at Elee with the following inscription: "The tree which Heaven plants, though man may fell it, can not be uprooted. The tree which Heaven fells, though man may replant it, will never grow."

To his own subjects Kien-lung was on the whole a just and good sovereign; but he inherited his father's dislike of the Christians, and for a time he cruelly persecuted them, accusing them of treasonable designs without the least shadow of reason. The relentless fury which he thus displayed was eagerly seconded by the mandarins, who had been jealous of the superior intelligence of the Jesuit missionaries.

Kien-lung's fame extended to Europe; and missions from England, Holland and Russia were sent to his court. It was in 1793 that the famous British embassy under Lord Macartney arrived in China with the design of establishing commercial intercourse between Great Britain and China. It was in 1795 that the Dutch embassy under Titsing appeared in China. These embassies were not productive of the good results expected therefrom. The Chinese believed themselves the only enlightened nation in the world, and claimed homage from all others as barbarians. The Emperor Kien-lung himself seems to have been free from these prejudices; but all his officers of state were opposed to an increase of foreign intercourse, which they feared would be fatal to their privileges. Kien-lung therefore pursued the narrow-minded, illiberal policy of his predecessors, and sternly refused to permit the European powers to open commercial relations with China, making a single exception in favor of Russia, which country carried on a considerable commerce with the northern provinces of the Celestial Empire.

Kien-lung's expressed desire to live to reign sixty years was granted; and, in accordance with the vow which he had made at the time of his accession, in 1736, he abdicated the Chinese throne in 1796, appointing his fifth son KIA-KING his successor. Kien-lung died February 11, 1799. Kia-king's twenty-four years' reign, A. D. 1796–1820, will be considered in the history of the nineteenth century.

EMPIRES IN FARTHER INDIA.

Farther India, or India beyond the Ganges, has been the seat of several empires. Of these Siam is very ancient, but Anam and Burmah only rose to importance in the eighteenth century. Pegu was an ancient kingdom of Farther India, which was conquered about 1755 by Alompra, the victorious founder of the Empire of Burmah, who established the complete independence of Burmah, subdued the small neighboring kingdoms, invaded Siam, and, after a series of victories, besieged the Siamese capital. Only Alompra's sudden illness and death in 1760 prevented his entire subjugation of Siam. The Burmese army at once evacuated Siam.

In 1767 a Chinese army invaded Burmah and approached its capital, but was routed with great slaughter in a pitched battle. The Chinese failed in another invasion of Burmah some years afterward. Several subsequent wars between Siam and Burmah resulted in the extension of Burmese territory.

SECTION IV.—EUROPE FROM 1714 TO 1740.

THE death of the Princess Sophia of Hanover made her son, the Elector George Louis of Hanover, the heir to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland by the terms of the Act of Settlement passed by the English Parliament in 1701 and accepted by Scotland upon its constitutional, or Parliamentary Union with England in 1707. Upon Queen Anne's death, August 1, 1714, this German prince was instantly proclaimed King of Great Britain by the queen's counselors, with the title of GEORGE I.; thus beginning the reign of the present House of Brunswick, of which the present illustrious queen is the sixth on the throne of Great Britain and Ireland.

It was believed that the Jacobites would endeavor to offer a forcible opposition to the accession of George I.; but they were taken by surprise by Queen Anne's death, and were therefore unprepared to make any resistance.

George I. made no haste to take possession of his new kingdom, and did not arrive in England until six weeks after Queen Anne's death, when he and his eldest son landed at Greenwich. He was well received by his new subjects, but he utterly lacked the qualities essential to arouse the loyalty of the English people. Being a thorough German, he could not speak a word of English, and was obliged to learn by rote a few English words in which to reply to the addresses of his new subjects. He was fifty-four years of age when he ascended the British throne, and was small of stature, awkward in manner and insignificant in appearance. His private life was scandalous; and when he came to England he left his wife, Sophia of Zell, behind him in Germany, a prisoner in one of his castles in his Electorate of Hanover. He was honest and well intentioned in his treatment of his new subjects, but could never learn to be an Englishman. He preferred his native Hanover as a residence and visited that country yearly, thus causing constant annoyance and embarrassment to his Ministers in England. The English nation cordially disliked him, and tolerated him only because he was a constitutional monarch and the only Protestant heir to the British crown, and because he did not interfere with their liberties.

George I. began his reign as King of Great Britain and Ireland by excluding the Tories from the government and forming a new Ministry consisting almost exclusively of Whigs, who were his natural supporters. He took no part in the government of his new kingdom, leaving the affairs of state entirely to his Ministers.

Queen Anne's Tory Ministers had disgusted the English nation by their plots for the restoration of the Stuarts to the British throne, and had thus made their party odious to the great majority of Englishmen. The restoration of the Stuarts would have been simply the undoing of the work of the Revolution of 1688, the repudiation of the national debt and the reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism by force.

The Whigs were pledged to sustain the results of the Revolution of 1688, and could not be suspected of disloyalty to the system which they had established, whatever their faults as a party were. The confidence of the English nation in the Whig party was not misplaced; as the plots of the Tory leaders, the Earl of Oxford and Lord Bolingbroke, had left the Whigs the sole representatives of the principles of the Revolution of 1688, and of constitutional liberty and religious freedom.

So overwhelmingly Whig was the first House of Commons summoned by George I. soon after his accession that it had less than fifty Tory members, and the Jacobite sympathies of these were so well understood that they had no influence in the government. In the new Whig Ministry, Lord

Townshend was appointed Secretary of State; and his brother-in-law, Sir Robert Walpole, became successively Paymaster of the Forces, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and First Lord of the Treasury.

One of the first acts of the new Whig Parliament was to impeach Lord Bolingbroke, the Earl of Oxford and the Duke of Ormond for misconduct in the negotiations which resulted in the Treaty of Utrecht and for intriguing with the Pretender James Stuart. At the beginning of these proceedings Lord Bolingbroke fled to France, and was followed by the Duke of Ormond. The Earl of Oxford remained at home to face his Whig enemies, and was sent a prisoner of state to the Tower, but was acquitted and released two years afterward. Parliament passed Acts of Attainder against Lord Bolingbroke and the Duke of Ormond.

These proceedings of the Whig Parliament exasperated the Tory party, thus causing riots in various parts of England. These disturbances became so numerous and so serious that Parliament passed the *Riot Act*, making it a felony for members of an unlawful assembly to refuse to disperse when commanded by a magistrate to do so.

The Pretender James Stuart was then residing in France, and the Tory disaffection and disturbances in England encouraged him to hope that he could succeed in an effort to recover his ill-fated father's throne. Lord Bolingbroke, who fully understood English public sentiment, urged the Pretender not to make the attempt, assuring him that it would certainly end in failure; but young James Stuart was as insensible to reason as his father had been, and ordered the Earl of Mar, the Jacobite leader in Scotland, to raise the standard of the Stuarts in that country. The Earl of Mar obeyed the Pretender's order by raising the standard of the young Stuart in the Highlands, September 6, 1715. The Earl of Mar believed that his revolt in Scotland would be followed by a Jacobite rising in the West of England, but he soon discovered his mistake. He was joined by a few Englishmen from the northern counties; but the vigorous measures of the government deprived him of material aid from England, where the leading Jacobites were arrested, thus depriving their party of its leaders.

The Earl of Mar was incompetent and cowardly. He advanced southward into the Lowlands, and was joined at Perth by six thousand Highlanders. On the royal side the Duke of Argyle summoned his clansmen, the numerous and powerful Campbells, to take up arms for King George I. The hostile forces encountered each other at Sheriff-Muir, near Dumblain, November 6, 1715. The troops of the Earl of Mar were successful at the first onset; and General Whetham, the commander of a division in the army of the Duke of Argyle, fled in full gallop to Stirling, exclaiming that the king's Scotch army had been utterly beaten. However, in the meantime, the Duke of Argyle's own division had defeated the body of the Earl of Mar's troops confronting them, but upon returning to the field met the victorious insurgents. As neither party seemed inclined to renew the struggle, they stood looking at each other for several hours, after which they withdrew in different directions, each claiming the victory. One of the Jacobite songs alluding to this drawn battle began thus:

"There's some say that we won,
Some say that they won,
Some say that none won
At a', man.

"But one thing I'm sure,
That at Sheriff-Muir
A battle there was,
Which I saw, man.

"And we ran, and they ran,
And they ran, and we ran,
And we ran, and they ran,
Awa', man."

Though the fight at Sheriff-Muir was a drawn battle, the Duke of Argyle had all the fruits of a victory, as the effect of the conflict was to check the progress of the Jacobite rebels and thus practically to give the triumph to the royal side. The Pretender arrived in Scotland, December 22, 1715, attended by only six gentlemen.

Expecting the whole Scotch nation to rise in his cause, he fixed January 16, 1716, as the day for his coronation at Scone, where his ancestors for centuries had been crowned Kings of Scotland; but before the arrival of the appointed day he was so closely pursued by the Duke of Argyle that he was glad to relinquish his enterprise and return to France, taking the Earl of Mar with him, and leaving the rest of his partisans to their fate.

On the very day of the battle of Sheriff-Muir, November 6, 1715, the Jacobite rebels in the North of England under the Earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Forster, aided by Lords Kenmuir and Nithisdale and other Scotch gentlemen, were defeated at Preston by the royal troops and forced to surrender, thus practically ending the Jacobite revolt of 1715. The Earl of Derwentwater, Lords Kenmuir and Nithisdale, and the other prisoners, were treated with great cruelty. The leaders were sent to London and led through the streets to the various prisons, pinioned like common malefactors. The Earl of Derwentwater and Lords Kenmuir and Nithisdale were condemned to be beheaded, and the former two were executed in that manner, but Lord Nithisdale effected his escape from prison and from the country in disguise and in a very romantic manner through the aid of his devoted wife. About thirty other Jacobite rebels were hung, and more than one thousand were exiled to America.

In 1716 Lord Townshend and Sir Robert Walpole retired from the Ministry, which then passed entirely under the control of Lord Stanhope. The House of Commons had now become the ruling power in Great Britain; and, in order to establish a proper basis for its influence, Parliament passed the *Septennial Act* in 1716, making seven years the longest period for which a British Parliament could sit.

As we have seen, LOUIS XV. was a child of five years when he became King of France upon the death of his great-grandfather, Louis XIV., September 1, 1715. The profligate Philip, Duke of Orleans, at once violated the will of Louis XIV. by setting aside the Council of Regency and usurping all the powers of government, thus making himself sole regent. Though possessing some good qualities, he was on the whole a bold, bad man; and his regency was one of the most corrupt periods in the history of France. Like his former preceptor, the Abbé Dubois, whom he now made his Prime Minister, he was a man of intellect and talent, but of most profligate morals, despising religion and virtue, outraging decency and morality by his dissolute and voluptuous life, and squandering the revenues of the state.

The Duke of Orleans and the Abbé Dubois adopted arbitrary measures to improve the financial condition of France, but these measures failed to produce the desired effect. The profligate Abbé Dubois was in the pay of England, and induced the Duke of Orleans to reverse the foreign policy of Louis XIV. by discountenancing the Pretender and cultivating the friendship of England as an offset to the ambition of Spain under her Bourbon king. The Whig Ministry of England was pledged to a peace policy in its relations with foreign powers, and sought to carry out its pledges by a faithful observance of the Treaty of Utrecht.

In 1714 Sultan ACHMET III. of Turkey, the successor of Mustapha II., who had been deposed by a revolt of the Janizaries in 1703, began a war against the Republic of Venice for the purpose of regaining possession of the Morea. In 1716 Austria joined Venice in the war; and the Austrian army, under the great Prince Eugene, defeated the immense hosts of the Turks at Peterwardein in 1716, and at Belgrade in 1717. By the Peace of Passarovitz, in 1718, the Porte surrendered Belgrade and Temesvar to Austria; but Venice ceded the Morea to the Sultan.

Notwithstanding the pacific disposition of the governments of France and England, the peace of Europe was disturbed in 1717 by the mad ambition of Charles XII. of Sweden and by the intrigues of Cardinal Alberoni, the Prime Minister of Philip V.

of Spain, for the aggrandizement of the Spanish Bourbon dynasty.

Charles XII. of Sweden coveted the duchies of Bremen and Verden, in the North of Germany, which King George I., as Elector of Hanover, had purchased from Denmark and annexed to his Electorate. The Swedish king designed to revenge himself for the loss of the two duchies by invading Scotland in the interest of the Pretender and in connection with a Jacobite rising in that country. The conspiracy was promptly detected and frustrated; and the projected Swedish invasion was prevented by the death of Charles XII. in the siege of Frederickshall, in Norway, December 11, 1718.

The intriguing efforts of the able but unprincipled Cardinal Alberoni, the Prime-Minister of Philip V. of Spain, for placing the Pretender on the throne of England, for obtaining the regency and succession to the throne of France for the King of Spain, and for wresting Sicily from the House of Hapsburg, to which that island had been assigned by the Treaty of Rastadt, produced, in 1717, a *Triple Alliance* of England, France and Holland for the purpose of compelling Spain to observe the stipulations of the Treaty of Utrecht. This coalition became the *Quadruple Alliance* by being joined by the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany in 1718.

War between France and Spain was hastened by the discovery of a plot in France under the leadership of the Marquis of Cellemare, the Cardinal de Polignac, the Duchess of Maine and the Spanish ambassador at Paris; the object of the conspiracy being the seizure of the Duke of Orleans and the elevation of Philip V. of Spain to the regency of France. The papers of the conspirators were artfully stolen from a young Spanish abbot, who was secretary to the Spanish embassy at Paris, thus disclosing the entire plot. The Spanish ambassador and his secretary were seized, their French accomplices were sent to the Bastile, and many of them were executed.

France declared war against Spain, January 10, 1719; and the other members of the Quadruple Alliance also proclaimed war against Spain. A British squadron under Admiral Byng defeated and destroyed the Spanish fleet in the Mediterranean, taking twenty-three ships. A German imperial force defeated the Spanish troops in Sicily and drove them from that island in 1720. A French force under the Duke of Berwick invaded the North of Spain, took several fortresses, destroyed some magazines, and burned sixteen newly-built ships of war: while the British fleet carried destruction into the Spanish port of Vigo. The Duke of Ormond failed in his attempt to land a Spanish army in Great Britain in the interest of the Pretender. The successes of the allies alarmed the weak and imbecile Philip V. of Spain, who accepted the terms of the Quadruple Alliance by dismissing and banishing the ambitious and intriguing Cardinal Alberoni as the price of peace, February, 1720.

The Duchy of Savoy became the *Kingdom of Sardinia* by a treaty in 1720, in which the Emperor Charles VI., as head of the Austrian House of Hapsburg, recognized Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy as King of Sardinia, ceding to him the island of Sardinia in exchange for Sicily.

The queen of King Philip V. of Spain, Elizabeth of Parma, was conciliated by the betrothal of her daughter, then only three years old, to King Louis XV. of France. As she was the second wife of Philip V., her controlling motive was her desire to make some royal provision for her own sons. She was descended from the almost extinct family of the Medici; and the imperial fiefs of Tuscany, Parma and Piacenza were promised to her son Don Carlos, who married one daughter of the Duke of Orleans, while his half-brother, the heir to the Spanish throne, espoused the other. The transient cordiality between France and Spain greatly increased the influence of the Jesuits in France. Philip V. was as bigoted as his predecessors, the Hapsburg Philips who had occupied the throne of Spain; and during his reign two thousand three hundred and forty-six persons were burned at the stake for their religious convictions.

Louis XIV. had left France burdened with a debt exceeding the sum of four hundred million dollars of our money, the annual interest upon which amounted to almost nine times the surplus revenues of the kingdom, thus being a terrible drain upon the resources of the nation. Various expedients of relief were proposed, and the Duke of Orleans sought to utilize the immense but still undeveloped wealth of the French possessions in North America as a means of relief from the existing embarrassments of the kingdom. In this emergency John Law, a Scotch banker, proposed the famous *Mississippi Scheme*, by which the public credit was to be retrieved by an enormous issue of paper money secured by shares in the *Mississippi Company*, and based upon a monopoly of trade with the French American colonies of Louisiana and Canada.

The Mississippi Scheme became very popular, and for a year speculation raged with full sway throughout France. All classes of the people, seized with one impulse of avarice, bought shares of stock in the Mississippi Company; and the shares could not be sold fast enough to supply the demand for them. The bonds of the government were readily exchanged for paper money of large denominations, which was preferred to gold because it could be counted more readily. Thus the people had exchanged their gold and silver coin for paper money, and the notes that were issued soon arose to eighty per cent of the value of the current coin. In this way the national debt of France disappeared, its bonds having been exchanged by their holders for shares of stock in the Mississippi Company.

The transient excitement gave a great impulse to colonization; and eight hundred French emigrants under Bienville, the Governor of Louisiana appointed by the Mississippi Company, founded New Orleans in 1718. John Law himself was granted immense territories in the present Arkansas, and poured out wealth in transporting thither French and German settlers and negro slaves.

But the bubble finally burst. In May, 1720, Law's bank failed, the notes being found irredeemable in specie. All the gold and silver had disappeared, and only the worthless paper money remained. The stock of the Mississippi Company was worthless, having more than a thousand times outrun the available value of its possessions, so that thousands of families who had once rolled in affluence and luxury were reduced to poverty. It is possible that the managers of this delusive scheme were ignorant of the true principles of finance, and that they did not intend to perpetrate a deliberate fraud; but this ill-judged effort to restore the public credit was almost as disastrous to the French nation as the costly wars which had burdened the nation with its vast debt. The popular indignation finally compelled John Law to leave France.

A project similar to that of the Mississippi Scheme was undertaken in England about the same time, with like results. England was rapidly growing in wealth and prosperity, and the sudden expansion of her commerce excited a desire for speculative ventures among her people which promised no good to the nation. This speculative feeling was strikingly manifested in the celebrated project known as the *South Sea Scheme*, proposed by Sir George Blount, by which the famous *South Sea Company* was organized for an exclusive right to trade with the Spanish American colonies. The South Sea Company bought up the government annuities with the privilege of paying the holders in its own stock, and in this way to reduce the national debt of Great Britain, which had been contracted chiefly by William III. in carrying on his wars against France, and which already amounted to an enormous sum. Those who bought annuities were to receive shares of stock in the South Sea Company as a substitute for their claims upon the government.

The South Sea Scheme became immensely popular; and all classes of people throughout England, rich and poor, seized with an insatiable avarice, went wild with a rage for speculation, and exchanged their entire fortunes and their savings for shares of

stock in the South Sea Company, fancying that the scrip of this Company was a sure passport to wealth. The days were too short and the counting-houses too small to accommodate the eager multitudes; and desks were therefore ranged along the streets, and lined with a host of clerks to receive subscriptions. The scheme was at first successful, and the stock of the South Sea Company arose to ten times the value for which it was subscribed.

Sir Robert Walpole, who was a practical financier, vainly warned the Ministry and the nation of the fictitious nature of the South Sea Scheme. The English people went wild with this rage for speculation until 1720, when the bubble burst, as the South Sea Company was found unable to fulfill more than a very small fraction of its promises; and thousands of families who had rolled in affluence and luxury, and thousands of others who had saved their hard earnings, were involved in utter financial ruin. A general panic followed, and kindred schemes that had sprung up during this rage for speculation also exploded. A storm of popular indignation manifested itself against the contrivers of the South Sea Scheme; and Parliament confiscated the estates of the directors of the South Sea Company for the benefit of the sufferers, but the infuriated people denounced the punishment as too mild.

The explosion of the South Sea Scheme drove Lord Stanhope's Ministry from power. In this emergency King George I. summoned Sir Robert Walpole to the direction of public affairs as Prime Minister, or First Lord of the Treasury. Walpole was the ablest financier of his time, and his wise warnings against the ill-judged South Sea Scheme had acquired for him the confidence of the British nation.

Walpole's administration is the longest in English history since the Revolution of 1688, and lasted twenty-one years, A. D. 1721–1742. As King George I. could not speak English, and as Sir Robert Walpole did not understand German or French, the intercourse between them was carried on in Latin. Walpole's policy was to discourage political activity, and to hold aloof from all Continental questions that might involve England in a war with any of the other European powers. He devoted all his great talents to the promotion of England's material prosperity, and also maintained British honor and influence abroad by his skill and firmness in diplomacy.

Walpole's measures were generally acceptable to the British nation, and were productive of the happiest results, which the king thus summed up in 1724: "Peace with all powers abroad; at home perfect tranquillity, plenty, and an uninterrupted enjoyment of all civil and religious rights."

SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.

Says John Richard Green: "Population was growing fast; that of Manchester and Birmingham doubled in thirty years. The rise of manufactures was accompanied by a sudden increase of commerce, which was due mainly to the rapid development of the colonies. Liverpool, which owes its creation to the new trade with the West, sprang up from a little country town to the third port in the kingdom. With peace and security, the value of land, and with it the rental of every country gentleman, tripled: while the introduction of winter roots, of artificial grasses, of the system of rotation of crops, changed the whole character of agri-

culture, and spread wealth through the farming classes. The wealth around him never made Walpole swerve from a rigid economy, from the steady reduction of the debt, or the diminution of fiscal duties. Even before the death of George the First the public burdens were reduced by twenty millions. But he had the sense to see that the wisest course a statesman can take in presence of a great increase in national industry and national wealth is to look quietly on and let it alone."

Sir Robert Walpole did not rely upon the force of his genius for the success of his public measures. Although he was personally honest, he introduced a general and most disgraceful system of corruption into the management of British politics. Parliament had its price, and it was regularly bought by Walpole whenever he regarded bribery essential to the success of his plans.

As Louis XV. had attained his legal majority in February, 1723, he assumed the government of France himself, and the Duke of Orleans resigned the regency. The duke retained his place in the government of France as President of the Council of State, and secured a seat in that body for the Abbé Dubois, who, through his exertions and influence, was created a Cardinal of the Holy Roman Church by the Pope sometime before. The Infanta of Spain, to whom Louis XV. was betrothed, was brought to France to be educated.

Cardinal Dubois died during the first year of the king's personal reign, and his death was followed by that of the Duke of Orleans on December 2d of the same year, both being the victims of their debaucheries. The Duke of Bourbon, the first prince of the blood royal of France, succeeded the Duke of Orleans as Prime Minister of the kingdom. This prince was dull and indolent, and was entirely under the influence of his mistress, the Marchioness of Prie, who is said to have been in the pay of the British Ministry of Sir Robert Walpole, and who was in her turn under the influence of a clever and unscrupulous financier named Paris Duvernay.

As the health of Louis XV. was feeble, King Philip V. of Spain abdicated his crown in favor of his eldest son Don Luis, in order to clear his way to the throne of France, thus surprising all Europe; but when, contrary to all expectation, Louis XV. recovered and Don Luis died suddenly, Philip V. resumed the Spanish crown, A. D. 1724.

Philip V. of Spain had offended the Marchioness of Prie, the mistress of the Duke of Bourbon; and she now had her revenge upon him. When Louis XV. was in feeble health it was considered best to provide for the succession to the French crown in case of his death. The Spanish Infanta being too young to be married, she was therefore sent back to Madrid in the bluntest manner, and with scarcely an explanation, in January, 1725. The Duke of Bourbon next unsuccessfully sought the espousal of Louis XV. to a princess of the royal family of England. The Duke of Bourbon and his mistress then selected the amiable Marie Leczinski, the daughter of the dethroned Polish king, Stanislas Leczinski, who was then living in retirement in Alsace, as a bride for the young French king; and the marriage took place at Fontainebleau, September 4, 1725. The object of the Duke of Bourbon and Madame de Prie in negotiating this marriage was to retain their influence at court by securing the attachment of the queen in consequence of the gratitude she would naturally feel toward those to whom she owed her elevation.

Philip V. of Spain naturally and intensely resented the insult put upon him by the French court's action in thus breaking off the marriage contract of his daughter with the young King of France; and in revenge he changed his foreign policy by forming an offensive and defensive alliance known as the *League of Vienna* with the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany, his competitor in the War of the Spanish Succession for the crown of Spain, thus openly taking sides against France.

The Emperor Charles VI., having no sons, desired to secure his hereditary Aus-

trian dominions to his daughter Maria Theresa; though his father's will had bequeathed the Austrian territories to the daughters of his elder brother and predecessor, the Emperor Joseph I., in such a case. By the *Pragmatic Sanction*, in 1713, the Emperor Charles VI. had declared his own will concerning the Austrian inheritance; and this had been confirmed by the Estates of Austria, Silesia, Bohemia, Hungary and the Austrian Netherlands; while imperial diplomacy was mainly directed toward obtaining the guarantee of the Pragmatic Sanction by the other powers of Europe.

It was believed that a secret article of the Treaty of Vienna, which united the German Empire and Spain in a close alliance, provided for a marriage between the Infant Don Carlos, the son of King Philip V. of Spain, and the Emperor's daughter Maria Theresa, with the object of an ultimate reunion of all the dominions of the Emperor Charles V. To prevent such a consummation, France, England, Holland, Prussia, Denmark and Sweden formed the *League of Herrnhausen* in opposition to the League of Vienna. But the League of Vienna was joined by the Empress Catharine I. of Russia, the widow and successor of Peter the Great, and eventually by King Frederick William I. of Prussia, who deserted the League of Herrnhausen in order to form an alliance with the Emperor Charles VI.

Europe was threatened with the outbreak of another great war; but, fortunately for the general peace, the Duke of Bourbon fell into disgrace in 1726, and was ordered to leave the French court; and with him passed away Madame de Prie and Paris Duvernay, the last of whom had inflicted much injury upon the finances of France. The venerable Cardinal Fleury, the preceptor of King Louis XV., then became Prime Minister of France. He was then over seventy years of age, and was a man of upright and noble character. His wise and peaceful policy averted the threatened European war, and restored order to the finances of France and revived the confidence of the French nation. He remained at the head of affairs in France for seventeen years, during which period he contrived to preserve tranquillity in the kingdom, thus giving France an opportunity to repair the losses occasioned by the wars of Louis XIV., and greatly increasing her commerce and wealth, while England was at the same time prospering under Walpole's wise and peaceful administration.

The general tranquillity of Europe was threatened by the action of Philip V. of Spain, whose army and navy laid siege to Gibraltar in February, 1727; but the peaceful Prime Ministers of England and France contrived to confine the struggle to the Spanish peninsula. The deaths of the Empress Catharine I. of Russia and King George I. of England, in 1727, also contributed to the preservation of peace.

Spain was the only great European power that had lately encouraged the attempts of the Pretender James Stuart to recover the British throne; and by the Treaty of Seville, in 1729, Spain made peace with England, France and Holland. The Second Treaty of Vienna, in 1731, reconciled France and Holland with the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany; and Spain also acceded to this treaty within a month. A family Convention, by which the last Grand Duke of Tuscany belonging to the House of Medici appointed Don Carlos, the second son of Philip V. of Spain, as his heir, completed the pacification of Europe.

George I. died of apoplexy in his carriage during his annual visit to his German Electorate of Hanover, June 10, 1727, in the sixty-eighth year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign over Great Britain, and was succeeded as Elector of Hanover and as King of Great Britain and Ireland by his son George Augustus, Prince of Wales, who assumed the title of GEORGE II.

George II. was forty-four years of age at the time of his accession. Like his father, he was a German by birth and in feeling, being attached to his native German dominions, and caring little for England—a partiality which led him to consider the interests of Hanover in preference to those

of Great Britain, and which therefore induced him to interfere in the politics of Continental Europe when British interests did not demand such interference.

Being able to speak English, George II. was more popular with his English subjects than his father had been. He was a dull, conceited despot, very methodical, obstinate, passionate and penurious, but fond of war and possessed of unquestioned courage. He had no more taste for art, science or literature than his father, and was occasionally heard to growl, in his German-English, that he saw no use in "bainting and boetry." He was devoted to his beautiful wife, Caroline of Brandenburg; but, in spite of this feeling, his private character was notoriously bad.

George II., while Prince of Wales, had hated his father and his father's friends, and had a great dislike for Sir Robert Walpole; but he was entirely influenced by his clever wife, Queen Caroline, who was resolved that Walpole should continue to direct the policy of the British government. Strong in the queen's favor, Walpole remained in power as Prime Minister fifteen years longer, during which period he exerted himself to keep Great Britain at peace. He had little to do at home for some time; as the Jacobites did not disturb the government, while the Dissenters, or Nonconformists, who demanded the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, were pacified by the annual passage of an *Act of Indemnity* for any breaches of those penal statutes. During this period Parliament passed an act requiring all proceedings in British courts of justice to be conducted in the English language, some of the proceedings having been in Latin.

The excise duties were the most unpopular taxes in England. In 1733 Walpole proposed to extend those duties; but his scheme aroused a bitter and resolute opposition on the part of the Tories and the discontented Whigs, the latter of whom were called the "Patriots." These parties contrived to make this opposition assume the proportions of almost a revolt. Riots were frequent throughout the kingdom, and Queen Caroline urged Walpole to crush the resistance by force. The Prime Minister was confident that his measures would result in benefit to the British nation; but he withdrew the bill, saying: "I will not be the Minister to enforce taxes at the expense of blood."

King FREDERICK WILLIAM I. of Prussia, who succeeded his father Frederick I. in 1713, as already noticed, was the opposite of his father in everything. He sold the jewels and the costly furniture that his father had collected, paid his debts with the proceeds, banished everything in the nature of luxury from the Prussian royal court, dismissed all the attendants who were not absolutely necessary, and avoided every superfluous expense. Frederick William I. and his court lived like citizens, their meals consisting of household fare, and his queen and her daughter being obliged to occupy themselves in domestic duties. The clothing and furniture of the royal family were simple.

The smoking-club, in which Frederick William I. and his "good friends" practiced coarse jests at the expense of the simple or good-natured, and where every one was obliged to have a pipe in his mouth, took the place of the intellectual circle with which his father and mother had surrounded themselves. The opera-singers and actors were dispensed with. French *beaux esprits* and teachers of language and dancing were banished from court; while poets, artists and scholars were deprived of their pensions wholly or partially. Wolff, whose free-thinking philosophy offended the pious and the orthodox, was ordered to leave the University of Halle within twenty-four hours, "under penalty of the rope."

Notwithstanding the offensiveness of the king's coarseness and severity, and his contempt for all learning, culture and refinement, it must be acknowledged that his powerful nature, his sound judgment and his sparing economy added strength and firmness to the young Kingdom of Prussia. Frederick William I. relieved the peasants for the purpose of improving agriculture. He encouraged internal industry, and for-

bade the importation of foreign manufactures. He caused the Protestants who had been driven from their homes by the Bishop of Salzburg to settle in his kingdom. His severity, though occasionally exercised at the expense of personal freedom, forced judges and officials to an efficient discharge of their functions.

Frederick William's own example furnishes evidence of what can be accomplished by frugality and good management. Although he expended vast sums of money upon his Potsdam guards, for which he caused "tall fellows" to be enlisted or kidnapped from all European countries, and although he founded many useful institutions, he left at his death a sum equal to eight million thalers, an immense quantity of silver plate, a regulated revenue, and an admirably-organized and splendidly-disciplined army of eighty thousand men.

Frederick William's son—who succeeded his father and became the illustrious Frederick the Great—did not follow in his father's footsteps. While Frederick William I. was engaged in his wild hunting parties, or pursuing his coarse amusements with his companions, his talented and intellectual son was diligently occupied with the works of French writers, and with his flute, for which he had a passionate fondness. Their different dispositions had a tendency to estrange them from each other.

Frederick was offended by his father's harshness; while the father was angry with his son for pursuing a different course, and would have willingly compelled him to abandon his course by severe treatment. This coldness and aversion increased as years rolled by; so that, when Frederick William I. capriciously opposed his son's intended marriage with a princess of the royal family of Great Britain, Frederick resolved to flee to England with a few young friends in 1730. The secret was revealed by an intercepted letter from the young prince to his confidant, the Lieutenant von Katte. King Frederick William I. foamed with rage. He ordered his son to be imprisoned in a fortress, and Katte to be executed before the windows of the prince's prison; while all those who were suspected of complicity in the plot were severely punished by the infuriated sovereign. Frederick was released from his imprisonment only when he penitently implored his father's pardon, and only then were his sword and his uniform restored to him.

Soon afterward, in 1734, Frederick was married to a daughter of the princely House of Brunswick-Bevern; but the crown prince found little enjoyment in the narrow circles of domestic life, and he seldom visited his wife, especially after his father conferred the little town of Rheinsberg upon him, where he thenceforth led a cheerful life in the midst of a circle of intellectual, accomplished and free-thinking friends, in which grave and diversified studies were alternated with wit, jest and lively conversation.

Crown Prince Frederick read the works of the writers of ancient Greece and Rome in French translations, and derived therefrom a noble ambition to emulate the ancient Grecian and Roman heroes in their great achievements and their intellectual culture. He admired French literature and conceived such a veneration for Voltaire that he addressed the most flattering letters to that great French philosopher and satirist, and at a later period invited him to his presence. But both soon perceived that no personal intercourse could long endure between two persons of such similarly sarcastic natures; and they separated from each other in anger, but still kept up a correspondence in writing.

Crown Prince Frederick exhibited his free way of thinking by receiving a number of French authors who had been banished from France because of the hostility of their writings to the Church; and after he became King of Prussia he showed the liberality of his views concerning religion by recalling Wolff to Halle, with the well-known declaration that in his kingdom every man might be happy in his own way.

Upon the death of Peter the Great, in 1725, his widow, the Empress CATHARINE I., became his successor on the throne of Russia, having been crowned during the life

of her renowned husband. This remarkable woman had been a Swedish peasant girl, and was one of the many prisoners taken by the Russians at the capture of Marienburg from the Swedes; after which she became a servant in the house of Prince Menschikoff, who, as we have seen, had himself risen from the humble condition of a baker-boy to be the Prime Minister of Peter the Great. It was while Catharine was in Prince Menschikoff's service that Peter the Great first saw her. Struck with her beauty and with her quickness and firmness of mind, he married her. She aided her illustrious husband in all his plans, and her even temper was able to soothe his frequent and violent fits of anger. After succeeding her husband as sole sovereign of Russia she continued his policy with the support of the new Russian party under the guidance of her former master, Prince Menschikoff.

CATHARINE I. OF RUSSIA.

Catharine I. died in 1727, after a brief reign, and was succeeded on the throne of all the Russias by her grandson PETER II., the son of Alexis. Peter II. had married a daughter of Prince Menschikoff, whose insolence became so unendurable that his imperial son-in-law banished him to Siberia in the course of a few months.

Peter II. died in 1730, after a reign of a few years; whereupon ANNA, Duchess of Courland, the niece of Peter the Great, became Empress of all the Russias. One of her first acts was to make peace with Nadir Shah of Persia and to restore most of the territory which Peter the Great had wrested from that Oriental monarchy. Anna reposed her confidence in two energetic and enterprising Germans, Ostermann and Münnich; the former of whom was her Prime Minister, while the latter was the commander-in-chief of her army. Her other favorite, Biron, ruled the Empress and the Empire with despotic sway, and banished twenty thousand persons to Siberia. Her reign of ten years, A. D. 1730–1740, was signalized by wars with the Crim Tartars and the Turks, which will be noticed hereafter.

The general peace of Europe was next disturbed by a contest over the Polish succession. On the death of King Frederick Augustus I. of Poland, the Elector Frederick Augustus II. of Saxony, in 1733, his son Frederick Augustus succeeded him as Elector of Saxony by hereditary right, with the title of Frederick Augustus III., and also appeared as a candidate for the elective crown of Poland. His candidacy was supported by the Empress Anna of Russia and by the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany, whose niece he had married, but whose support he had only gained by renouncing the claims of the Electoral dynasty of Saxony to the Austrian succession and giving his guarantee to the Pragmatic Sanction.

The deposed Stanislas Leczinski also became a candidate for the Polish crown, with the support of his son-in-law, King Louis XV. of France; and, as he was a native

Pole, he was preferred by the great majority of the Polish people. The defects of the constitution of Poland placed that unhappy country at the disposal of foreign powers. A pretense respecting the freedom of election was made; but both parties lavishly used money to secure votes in the Polish Diet, while a Russian army was quartered in Poland and an Austrian army in Silesia.

Stanislas Leczinski, as the more popular candidate, was elected King of Poland by a large majority of the Polish nobles on the great plain of Wola, September 12, 1733; but a small minority of the Polish Diet crossed the Vistula to Praga and gave their votes to the Saxon Elector, whom they immediately proclaimed King of Poland with the title of FREDERICK AUGUSTUS II., and who was recognized by the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany and the Empress Anna of Russia.

As Stanislas Leczinski was not supported by his Polish partisans or by his father-in-law, King Louis XV. of France, he became a fugitive from his native land a second time, fleeing from Warsaw and seeking refuge at Dantzic, which was besieged and taken by a Russian army in 1734, whereupon the refugee Stanislas Leczinski fled in the disguise of a peasant to the court of King Frederick William I. of Pussia, who protected his person, but who furnished a contingent of ten thousand Prussian soldiers to aid the Russians and the Austrians in opposing his cause. Thus began the *War of the Polish Succession.*

The other powers of Europe availed themselves of the War of the Polish Succession to fight out their own quarrels, while the unhappy people of Poland suffered all the injury of a struggle in which they had no voice. France began hostilities in 1733 by seizing the German imperial province of Lorraine, while Philip V. of Spain formed an alliance with Louis XV. for the purpose of recovering the Italian possessions of his predecessors which he had relinquished to the Austrian Hapsburgs by the Treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt. King Charles Emmanuel III. of Sardinia, the son and successor of Victor Amadeus II., who died in 1730, promised an alliance with the House of Hapsburg; and so well did he deceive the Emperor Charles VI. that the latter was totally taken unawares when the Sardinian, or Piedmontese, army was mowing down his own troops on the plains of Lombardy.

A French and Piedmontese army under Marshal Villars conquered the Duchy of Milan. The French army of the Rhine commanded by the Duke of Berwick, the son of the ill-fated James II. of England, took Kehl, Treves and Trarbach, and besieged Philipsburg, where he was killed June 12, 1734. Marshal Villars died several days afterward at Turin. These were the last of the great generals of Louis XIV. The German imperial forces on the Rhine were under the command of Prince Eugene, who was unable to check the victorious course of the French. After the death of Villars the French and Sardinian armies defeated the German imperial forces at Parma, June 29, 1734, and at Guastalla, September 17, 1734, thus gaining full possession of all Austrian Lombardy after two bloody campaigns.

In the meantime a Spanish army under Don Carlos, the second son of King Philip V., invaded Naples, where the Austrian rule was universally detested. The victory of the Spaniards over the German imperial troops at Bitonto, in May, 1734, completed the Spanish conquest of the mainland of the Kingdom of Naples; and a few months later the island of Sicily was also reduced under the Spanish dominion. Don Carlos was crowned at Palermo as King of Naples and Sicily under the title of Charles IV., thus beginning the rule of the Spanish Bourbons in Southern Italy. The mild disposition of the young king, and the wisdom of his Minister, Bernardo Tanucci, who had formerly been a professor of law at Pisa, made the beginning of this Spanish Bourbon dynasty in Naples and Sicily far more beneficent than its later years.

Thus defeated on the Rhine and in Italy, the Emperor Charles VI. solicited the aid of England and Holland. King George II.

of England and his wife Queen Caroline were both anxious to take part in the War of the Polish Succession, but the firmness of Prime Minister Sir Robert Walpole kept Great Britain out of this war, and in 1736 the joint intervention of England and Holland restored peace to Europe.

As the imperial House of Hapsburg had lost all its possessions in Italy, the Emperor Charles VI. became anxious for peace; and this desire was shared by all the belligerent powers. Hostilities ended in 1735; but the Third Treaty of Vienna, which ended the War of the Polish Succession, was not signed until November 8, 1738.

By this treaty Stanislas Leczinski renounced his claims to the crown of Poland, and received in exchange the German duchies of Lorraine and Bar, which had already been acquired by France, and which, as the dowry of his daughter, the wife of King Louis XV., were to revert to France, to which they were to be permanently annexed on the death of Stanislas. Francis Stephen, the former Duke of Lorraine, who was affianced to the Austrian Archduchess Maria Theresa, the daughter of the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany, was indemnified for his loss of Lorraine by the Italian Grand Duchy of Tuscany, which he received on the death of the last of the famous House of Medici, which occurred before the treaty was signed. Francis Stephen was very reluctant to part with his duchy of Lorraine, but when the Emperor Charles VI. told him that only on that condition could he have the Archduchess Maria Theresa he yielded. France withdrew her protest against his marriage with the Emperor's daughter. A small portion of Lorraine was secured to him in order that he might remain a prince of the German Empire, and that he might thus have a better prospect of election to the imperial throne of Germany upon the death of his father-in-law.

By this treaty the Spanish Bourbon prince Don Carlos was acknowledged as King of Naples and Sicily, and he relinquished to the Emperor Charles VI. his fiefs in Northern Italy; while France, Spain and Sardinia confirmed the Pragmatic Sanction, which, as already noticed, the Emperor Charles VI. had framed for the purpose of securing the peaceable succession to his hereditary Austrian territories to his daughter Maria Theresa.

In 1735 the Empress Anna of Russia had commenced a war against the Tartars of the Crimea, who were tributary to the Ottoman Porte; and soon afterward she began hostilities against Sultan MAHMOUD I., the successor of Achmet III., who had been hurled from his throne in 1730 by a revolt of the Janizaries. Münnich, the Empress Anna's commander-in-chief, the founder of the Russian military system, reconquered Azov, which the Turks had recovered, and gained brilliant victories by his masterly tactics, capturing Oczakoff in 1737 and Kotzim in 1739, and thus conquering the principality of Moldavia.

In 1737 Austria took part in the war as an ally of Russia; but, as Prince Eugene had died April 21, 1736, the Austrian troops had no great general to lead them to victory; and, after a disastrous defeat at Krotzka, July 21, 1738, they were forced to a disgraceful retreat, being thus driven from Servia, Bosnia and Wallachia; while the victorious Turks retook Orsova and besieged Belgrade. The Emperor Charles VI. of Germany was greatly alarmed by the disasters to his arms; and in 1739 the Peace of Belgrade put an end to hostilities between Austria and Turkey, Austria surrendering the fortresses of Belgrade, Sabatz and Orsova to the Turks. Peace was also soon made between Russia and the Porte, Russia retaining Azov and extending her frontier in the Ukraine, but agreeing to keep no fleet in the Black Sea.

In the very year of the Peace of Belgrade a colonial and maritime war broke out between Spain and England. On the death of Queen Caroline, in 1737, Sir Robert Walpole's power in England commenced to decline. Frederick, Prince of Wales, hated his father, and openly supported the "Patriots," or discontented Whigs, who were the avowed enemies of the able Prime Minister who had

so long wielded the destinies of Great Britain. The English people were tired of the long peace which they had enjoyed under Walpole's wise administration, and the British mercantile class was resolved upon pushing its contraband trade with Spain's South American colonies.

The Treaty of Utrecht had restricted this trade to the traffic in negro slaves and to the yearly visit of but one ship, but a large and steady smuggling trade with these colonies had been carried on for some years. King Philip V. was very hostile to this traffic, and after his accession Spain redoubled her exertions to end it. The Englishmen who were taken captive while engaged in this trade were rigorously punished by imprisonment or by the loss of a nose or an ear, and when they returned home they aroused the indignation of their countrymen by their stories of the cruelties which they had suffered from the Spaniards. The English people considered them martyrs for the freedom of commerce, and Walpole was unable to control the fury which the accounts of these outrages aroused.

Besides the privilege claimed by the English of supplying the Spanish American colonies with African slaves, and the right claimed by the Spaniards of searching British vessels for contraband goods, the boundaries between the new English colony of Georgia and the Spanish colony of Florida were in dispute. In 1735 Philip V. of Spain had strengthened himself by a *Family Compact* with King Louis XV., a treaty which bound these two Bourbon kings to unite in an effort to recover Gibraltar for Spain and to harass English commerce by a swarm of French privateers as well as by the French national fleet.

In exercising the right to search English vessels upon the high seas for contraband goods, a Spanish captain who found nothing to seize wantonly tore off the ear of the English ship-master Jenkins, and told him to carry it to King George II. with the message that if the Spaniards had caught His Majesty they would have treated him in the same manner. The account of this outrage aroused a storm of indignation in England, thus forcing Sir Robert Walpole against his will into a war with Spain, which was declared in 1739. The popular joy was expressed in London by the ringing of bells; whereupon Walpole remarked, with wise forethought: "They may ring their bells now. Before long they will be wringing their hands."

The colonial and maritime war thus commenced was not on the whole either successful or profitable to England. During the first three months of hostilities the Spaniards took prizes amounting to more than a million dollars. In 1739 a British fleet under Admiral Vernon stormed and captured Porto Bello, a rich Spanish town on the Isthmus of Panama; but in 1740 Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth were repulsed in an assault upon Cartagena, a still more important town on the northern coast of South America.

In the meantime a British naval expedition under Commodore Anson sailed to the South American waters with the design of attacking the Spanish colonies of Chili and Peru. This expedition crossed the Pacific to China in search of a rich Spanish galleon, which was finally captured, June 9, 1743; after which Anson completed his voyage around the globe, returning to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope, after an absence of almost four years; but the expedition suffered terrible hardships, and was reduced by scurvy, so that Anson's flagship was the only vessel that returned home.

Walpole's reluctance to engage in this war had made him very unpopular among his countrymen, and his political enemies took advantage of this feeling to hold him responsible for the ill success of the English in the struggle; but the Prime Minister held his ground firmly for several years longer. The Anglo-Spanish war became merged in that general European contest known as the War of the Austrian Succession, which began in 1740 and lasted eight years, and the details of which will be narrated fully in the next section.

SECTION V.—WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION.

THREE of the leading sovereigns of Europe died in 1740—King Frederick William I. of Prussia, May 31; the Empress Anna of Russia, October 17; and the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany, October 21.

Frederick William I. was succeeded as King of Prussia by his son FREDERICK II., who afterward became so illustrious in history as FREDERICK THE GREAT. Frederick II. was twenty-eight years of age at his accession, and was in vigorous health. He was endowed with great natural abilities, and was destined to become one of the greatest characters of history—a great warrior and a great sovereign. Upon his accession he at once devoted himself with diligence to the government of his kingdom; and his subjects soon perceived that he was as much a king as his father had been, but that he was a more enlightened monarch. He took all branches of the government into his own hands, and administered each according to his own will, asking advice from no one, and requiring his Ministers simply to record his decisions and to execute his orders. His kingdom at once felt the impulse of his vigorous policy. On his accession to the throne he received a well-provided treasury, and a powerful, well-organized and strictly-disciplined army. By his abilities as a general and a statesman, Frederick II. raised Prussia to a front rank in the list of nations.

Having no male heirs, the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany had obtained, by great concessions, among which was the cession of the German dukedom of Lorraine to France, the agreement of all the leading European powers to the famous Pragmatic Sanction, by which he left the succession to his hereditary Austrian dominions to his only daughter, MARIA THERESA, Queen of Hungary, wife of Francis Stephen of Lorraine, Grand Duke of Tuscany.

No sooner had the Emperor Charles VI. descended to his grave than a host of claimants appeared for various portions of the hereditary Austrian estates and endeavored to make good their pretensions by force of arms. The Elector of Bavaria, Charles Albert, laid claim to the hereditary states of Austria, Bohemia and Hungary, as a descendant of the eldest daughter of the Emperor Ferdinand II. Frederick Augustus III., Elector of Saxony, King Frederick Augustus II. of Poland, raised claims to Moravia. Frederick II., the young King of Prussia, revived some old pretensions of the House of Hohenzollern to Silesia. Philip V. of Spain cast a longing eye on some of the Italian possessions of the House of Hapsburg. France, regarding the opportunity auspicious for the humiliation of the proud House of Hapsburg, readily violated the Pragmatic Sanction by supporting the claims of the Elector of Bavaria to the Austrian succession against the judgment of Cardinal Fleury, who desired peace. England, under Sir Robert Walpole, alone at first espoused the cause of Maria Theresa, furnishing her with large subsidies, and afterward offering her military aid; and Holland and Sardinia finally took up arms in her favor. A secret alliance called the *League of Nymphenburg* was concluded between the Kings of France, Spain, Prussia and Sardinia, and the Electors of Saxony, Bavaria, Cologne and the Palatinate. This contest, which convulsed Europe for eight years, is known as the *War of the Austrian Succession*, A. D. 1740–1748.

Soon after the death of the Emperor Charles VI., Frederick II. of Prussia made a sudden irruption into Silesia at the head of thirty thousand men. Frederick speedily conquered Silesia, and offered to enter into an alliance with Maria Theresa if she confirmed him in the possession of his new conquest; but the young Queen of Bohemia and Hungary declared her determination to uphold the integrity of her hereditary domin-

ions, and thus gave occasion to the *First Silesian War*. On April 10, 1741, hostilities were commenced by the battle of Molwitz, in which the King of Prussia, by the skill and bravery of his two leading generals, Prince Leopold of Dessau and Marshal Schwerin, gained a complete victory over the Austrians, and was thus enabled to hold possession of Silesia.

Before her death in October, 1740, the Empress Anna of Russia had appointed her tyrannical favorite, Biron, regent for her grandnephew and successor, the infant IVAN VI., the son of Prince Anthony Ulrich of Brunswick and his wife Anne of Mecklenburg; but Biron, who during Anna's reign had banished twenty thousand persons to Siberia, was now exiled to the same inhospitable region by Field-Marshal Münnich, through the machinations of the infant Czar's mother, who then became regent.

As the party which favored an alliance with Maria Theresa controlled the regent's Ministry, France instigated Sweden to make war on Russia; the party of the *Hats*, the partisans of France, then prevailing in Sweden over the faction of the *Caps*, the adherents of Russia. Sweden accordingly concluded an alliance with France, from which she received a subsidy. The Swedish Diet declared war against Russia, August, 1741. The Russians invaded the Swedish province of Finland, defeated the Swedes at Wilmanstrand, September 3, 1741, and took that town by storm.

In the meantime another revolution took place in the palace of St. Petersburg. With the support of the French ambassador and a company of the regent's guards, the Princess ELIZABETH, daughter of Peter the Great and Catharine I., caused herself to be proclaimed Empress of all the Russias, consigning the little Czar Ivan VI. to lifelong imprisonment. The Swedes entered into peace negotiations with Elizabeth, but as their pretensions were too extravagant hostilities were renewed. In 1742 the Swedes were driven from all their posts in Finland and retired to Helsingfors, where they were besieged by the Russian army and navy and forced to surrender, thus placing all Finland in the possession of the Russians. By the Peace of Abo, in July, 1743, Sweden recovered a portion of Finland, but ceded to Russia the remainder of that province, including the towns and fortresses of Nyslott, Fredericksham and Wilmanstrand.

France having determined to support the cause of the Elector of Bavaria, a powerful French army under the command of Marshal Belleisle marched into Germany, and, after having been joined by the Bavarians and the Saxons, invaded the Archduchy of Austria, captured Linz, menaced Vienna, compelled Maria Theresa to flee from her capital, and then marched into Bohemia and took possession of Prague.

The Elector Charles Albert of Bavaria was crowned at Linz as Archduke of Austria, and at Prague as King of Bohemia; and, through the influence of France and Prussia, the German Electoral Princes, in the Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main, elected him to the imperial throne of Germany with the title of CHARLES VII., in January, 1742.

With her infant son Joseph in her arms, Maria Theresa appeared in the Diet of the Hungarian nobles at Presburg, and sympathetically appealed to them to aid her in her distressed condition. The hearts of the Hungarians were touched, and they unanimously exclaimed: "*Moriamur pro rege nostro Maria Theresa!*" "Let us die for our king, Maria Theresa!"

Troops of Croats, Pandours and Slavs, wild and warlike races of Southern Hungary, under the conduct of Khevenhüller and Bärenklau, to the number of one hundred thousand, now flocked to the standard of Maria Theresa, and, after driving the French and the Bavarians out of the Austrian territories, entered Bavaria, and took possession of Munich on the very day that the Elector of Bavaria was crowned Emperor at Frankfort. The new Emperor was obliged to live in retirement from his hereditary Bavarian dominions, which were frightfully plundered and devastated by the Austrians and the Hungarians, who had in the meantime been joined by the Tyrolese.

In the meantime England sent one fleet which blockaded Cadiz, and another against Naples which compelled Charles IV., the Spanish Bourbon King of Naples, to conclude a treaty of neutrality by threatening aimed at the preservation of the House of Hapsburg.

Early in 1742 Sir Robert Walpole was able only to command a bare majority of three in Parliament in favor of his measures,

THE EMPRESS ELIZABETH OF RUSSIA.

to bombard his capital. By means of liberal subsidies England induced the King of Sardinia to renounce his alliance with France. These results were mainly achieved during the Ministry of Sir Robert Walpole, who whereupon he resigned the office of Prime-Minister, and was succeeded by a new Whig Ministry under Lord Carteret. King George II. at once created Walpole Earl of Orford, and continued to consult him on public af-

fairs in preference to Lord Carteret's new Ministry. As Earl of Orford, Walpole took his seat in the House of Lords, and devoted himself to restoring the unity of the Whig party and breaking up the opposition.

Lord Carteret's Ministry went further than Walpole, and aimed at the ruin of the House of Bourbon. The policy of the new Ministry encountered a determined opposition in England, particularly the employment of Hanoverian and Hessian troops by King George II. William Pitt, the ablest leader and the most gifted orator of the "Patriots," or discontented Whigs, declared in a speech in the House of Commons: "It is now too apparent that this powerful, this great, this mighty nation is considered only as a province to a despicable Electorate."

In the meantime the King of Prussia had invaded Bohemia with a powerful army; and on May 17, 1742, he was fiercely attacked near Czaslau by the Austrians under Prince Charles of Lorraine and Field-Marshal Königseg. By the irresistible impetuosity of the Prussian cavalry under Field-Marshal Buddenbrock, and a dashing charge by the Prussian infantry headed by Frederick in person, the Austrians were repulsed with heavy loss. This victory gave Frederick full possession of Silesia. On July 28, 1742, Frederick concluded with Maria Theresa the Peace of Breslau, by which he was left in possession of Silesia.

After the Peace of Breslau with the King of Prussia, the Austrians recovered the greater part of Bohemia from the French. The French army under Marshal Belleisle was besieged in Prague, and at length compelled to evacuate that city and to retreat in the midst of winter to Eger, and thence through Germany to the Rhine, after immense losses, only thirteen thousand men of Belleisle's once-splendid army surviving.

This terrible French disaster hurried Cardinal Fleury to his grave. He died January 29, 1743, at the age of ninety. For some time after his death, King Louis XV., who was naturally indolent and indisposed to attend to his royal duties, left the affairs of his kingdom to the various Ministers at the head of the different branches of the public service. The real ruler of France at this period was the king's mistress, the Duchess de Chateauroux, a talented and ambitious woman, who exerted herself to rouse Louis XV. to a sense of his royal duties.

The Emperor Charles VII. found himself deserted by the French and disastrously defeated by the Austrians, while his capital was again occupied by Maria Theresa's troops. In these humiliating circumstances, he consented to abandon Bavaria on condition that the remnant of his army might be quartered in some neutral state of the German Empire. Maria Theresa received the allegiance of the Bavarian Estates.

In 1743 England, under Lord Carteret's Ministry, began to take an active part in the war against France, as an ally of Maria Theresa. An English army of forty thousand men, under King George II. and the Earl of Stair, having advanced into Germany, was attacked by a French army of sixty thousand men, under Marshal de Noailles, at the village of Dettingen, near Aschaffenburg, June 27, 1743. Brought by the excellent arrangements of the French marshal into a perilous position, where advance or retreat was impossible without being exposed to attack at the greatest disadvantage, the whole English army with the king would have become prisoners to the French but for the impetuosity of one of the French commanders, who attacked the English in a narrow defile, where his troops, becoming entangled, were fiercely assailed by the Earl of Stair, and all the plans of Noailles were disconcerted. A general engagement ensued, and the French were disastrously defeated and compelled to retreat. The English, however, neglected to follow up their victory.

After withdrawing from the League of Nymphenburg, King Charles Emmanuel of Sardinia entered into a close alliance with Maria Theresa, engaging to keep forty-five thousand troops in the field on condition of receiving an annual subsidy from England and some accessions of territory in Northern

Italy. At the same time a second *Family Compact* of the Bourbon dynasties of France and Spain united those two kingdoms in war against Great Britain and Sardinia.

In March, 1744, a French army of eighty thousand men took the field, under the nominal leadership of King Louis XV., but under the real command of Marshal de Noailles and Count Maurice of Saxony, better known as Marshal Saxe, an illegitimate son of the Elector Frederick Augustus III. of Saxony, King Frederick Augustus II. of Poland. This formidable French army invaded the Austrian Netherlands and captured many towns; but, in the midst of his victorious career, the King of France was obliged to return, to defend his own dominions against the Austrians, who, under Prince Charles of Lorraine, crossed the Rhine and conquered the greater portion of Alsace. The Austrians were, however, soon recalled to operate against the King of Prussia, who had again taken up arms against Maria Theresa.

In August, 1744, the Emperor Charles VII., the Kings of Prussia and Sweden and the Elector-Palatine concluded the *League of Frankfort* against Maria Theresa. Fearing that Maria Theresa, encouraged by her successes against the French and the Bavarians, would make an attempt to reconquer Silesia, Frederick II. of Prussia commenced the *Second Silesian War* by invading Bohemia with seventy thousand troops. In September, 1744, Frederick laid siege to Prague, which was soon compelled to surrender with its garrison of eighteen thousand Austrian troops. Frederick was, however, soon compelled to retreat with the loss of twenty thousand men; as the promised diversion of the French on the side of the Rhine was prevented by the illness of Louis XV. at Metz—an illness which imperilled the life of the French king, who, upon his recovery, received the undeserved title of the *Well-beloved* from his overjoyed subjects.

In the meantime the Emperor Charles VII. took advantage of the Second Silesian War to recover his hereditary dominions and to reëstablish himself at Munich. The Austrian army in Italy, which had advanced almost to the Kingdom of Naples in 1743, was driven northward nearly to the Po in 1744.

England, which thus far had so enthusiastically sustained the cause of Maria Theresa, was now startled by her scheme for the dismemberment of the Kingdom of Prussia. Even Lord Carteret was astounded thereby. As we shall presently observe, Protestant England, menaced by a Catholic Pretender, could not for a moment entertain the idea of destroying the leading Protestant power of Continental Europe. The more moderate Whigs determined upon peace and a treaty with Frederick the Great of Prussia.

In pursuance of this policy, Lord Carteret was forced to resign in 1744; whereupon Henry Pelham, the brother of the Duke of Newcastle, became Prime Minister and directed the policy of Great Britain. Under Pelham's guidance England and Prussia concluded the Convention of Hanover, in accordance with which England withdrew from the war so far as her participation in German affairs was concerned, August, 1745.

In January, 1745, a *Quadruple Alliance* united more closely the interests of Maria Theresa, the Elector of Saxony, the Dutch Republic and Great Britain. The Emperor Charles VII. of Germany died January 20, 1745; and his son Maximilian Joseph, who succeeded him as Elector of Bavaria, made peace with Maria Theresa, renouncing all claims to the Austrian dominions by the Treaty of Füssen, April, 1745, by which he also promised his Electoral vote to her husband on condition of their retrospective acknowledgment of his father's imperial title and their guarantee of his own undisturbed possession of Bavaria. In spite of the protests of the King of Prussia as Elector of Brandenburg and of the Elector-Palatine, Maria Theresa's husband, Francis Stephen of Lorraine, Grand Duke of Tuscany, was elected Emperor of Germany with the title of FRANCIS I.; thus founding the new imperial House of Austria—the House of Hapsburg-Lorraine. Although the original

cause of the war was now removed, the national animosity which animated England and France prevented the restoration of a general peace.

In the meantime the Austrians, under the able Field-Marshal Traun, had reconquered Silesia from the Prussians. But the Prussians soon regained the supremacy by some splendid triumphs. Frederick II. won a brilliant victory over the Austrians among the hills of Hohenfriedberg, June 4, 1745. A Prussian force under Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick gained a victory at Sorr, September 30, 1745. Prince Leopold of Dessau, with Prussian troops, defeated the Saxons under General Rutowski, who were now the allies of the Austrians, in a bloody engagement at Kesselsdorf, December 15, 1745; and the King of Prussia entered Dresden, the Saxon capital, in triumph. The Second Silesian War was ended by the Peace of Dresden, by which Maria Theresa consented to leave Silesia in the possession of Frederick, who in turn recognized her husband as Emperor, December, 1745. The Elector of Saxony recovered his hereditary dominions by the payment of a large ransom.

The Austrian Netherlands were now the theatre of some severe struggles on the part of the French against the united armies of England, Holland and Austria. On May 11, 1745, was fought the great battle of Fontenoy, in which the combined English, Dutch and Austrian forces, commanded by the Duke of Cumberland, son of George II. of England, were thoroughly defeated, with the loss of seven thousand men, by the French army, numbering fifty thousand men, under the command of Marshal Saxe; in consequence of which Tournay, Ghent, Bruges, Oudenarde, Nieuport and Ath were occupied by the French. Louis XV. returned to Paris and was received like a conqueror.

The danger to England at home had already vindicated the wisdom of Sir Robert Walpole's peace policy and his prudence in foiling the Pretender's hopes by his steady friendship for France. The Jacobites could expect aid only from France, and the war with France at once revived their hopes. Early in the war France endeavored to weaken Great Britain by inciting a civil war in that kingdom. Charles Edward Stuart, the grandson of the ill-fated James II.—called the *Young Pretender* and the *Young Chevalier*—received an invitation from the French government to return to France, and was placed in command of a formidable armament for the invasion of Great Britain in 1744; but his effort for a descent upon the coast of Scotland was frustrated by a storm which wrecked his fleet, thus compelling him to relinquish his enterprise.

In 1745 the Young Pretender, encouraged by the English defeat at Fontenoy, again embarked with seven followers in a small vessel, and landed on one of the islands of the Hebrides, whence he made his way to the Highlands, and set up his standard at Glenfinnan, August 29, 1745, being there joined by fifteen hundred clansmen. With these Highlanders he marched through Blair Athol on Perth, his army increasing on the march. He entered Edinburgh in triumph, September 16, 1745, and proclaimed his father King of Scotland with the title of James VIII. at the Town Cross.

Two thousand English troops under Sir John Cope who marched against Charles Edward Stuart were defeated and cut to pieces by a wild charge of the Highland clansmen at Preston Pans, September 21, 1745. This victory greatly elated the Young Pretender and his followers, and at once doubled his forces, so that he now had six thousand men, all of whom were Highlanders, as the Lowlanders held aloof from his standard.

It was only after the greatest difficulty that the Young Pretender finally persuaded his Highlanders to follow him southward in an invasion of England. After crossing the border into England, he skillfully evaded the royal army at Newcastle and marched through Cumberland and Lancashire toward London, reaching Derby by December 4, 1745, and creating the greatest consternation throughout England. Although he marched

through the English counties in which Jacobitism boasted of its strength, only a solitary squire and less than two hundred men of the lower class joined his army as he marched from Carlisle to Derby. Although Catholics and Tories abounded in Lancashire, the people simply flocked to see his march as if they were going to see a show. Manchester, the very stronghold of Jacobitism, only gave him an illumination and two thousand pounds. Sir Robert Walpole's peace policy, which had made England wealthy and prosperous, had won the nation to the House of Brunswick. Jacobitism as a fighting force was dead, existing simply as a matter of tradition, and as a means of expressing political opposition to the government; and Charles Edward Stuart himself saw that it was impossible to conquer rich and powerful England with five thousand barbarous Highlanders.

The Young Pretender also soon ascertained that forces twice the size of his own were closing in on each side of him, while a third English army under King George II. and the Earl of Stair covered London. While Charles Edward's Highlanders were in England, the Scots of the Lowlands quietly renewed their allegiance to the House of Brunswick. Even in the Highlands the clan of the Mac Leods took up arms for King George II.; while the clan of the Gordons refused to stir, though roused by a small French force which landed at Montrose.

The Young Pretender's officers were now thoroughly alarmed, and refused to continue their advance, urging him to retreat into Scotland. The young Stuart consented very reluctantly and fell back on Glasgow. The reinforcements which he received there increased his army to nine thousand men; whereupon he marched against the English army under General Hawley, which had pursued him in his retreat from England. The English were defeated at Falkirk by a wild charge of the Highlanders, January 23, 1746. But this victory was as fatal to the Young Pretender as a defeat would have been, as the bulk of his army dispersed to the mountains with their booty; and Charles Edward was obliged to retreat into the Highlands, pursued by the royal army under the Duke of Cumberland, that son of King George II. who was so signally defeated by the French at Fontenoy.

In the memorable battle of Culloden Moor, a few miles east of Inverness, April 16, 1746, the Young Pretender with his six thousand starving and dispirited Highlanders was hopelessly defeated; and there the cause of the Stuarts received its death-blow. The royal army under the Duke of Cumberland was almost twice as large as the Pretender's force. The royal artillery broke the ranks of the Highlanders, whereupon the clansmen flung themselves in their usual style upon the English front, but were received with a dreadful fire of musketry. The few Highlanders who broke through the front line of the royal army found themselves confronted by a second line. In a few moments the battle was decided, and the Highlanders became a mass of hunted fugitives. The triumphant English massacred the wounded Highlanders on the field; and the Duke of Cumberland tarnished the glory of his victory by acts of cruelty and by a savage desolation of the country around Culloden, thus acquiring the unenviable name of "the Butcher." So complete was the desolation that in a district of fifty miles around Lochiel neither house nor cottage, neither man nor beast, were to be seen. The battle of Culloden was the last fought on the island of Great Britain.

In the meantime the headsman and the hangman had been kept busy. Four Scotch nobles—Lords Lovat and Balmerino, and the Earls of Kilmarnock and Cromartie—were tried and convicted by the House of Lords on charges of high-treason, as was also Charles Radcliffe, brother of the Earl of Derwentwater, who had been beheaded for his efforts in behalf of the old Pretender; and all were beheaded on Tower Hill, except the Earl of Cromartie, who was pardoned. Fifty of the Young Pretender's followers were hanged, drawn and quartered in England—seventeen at Kennington Com-

mon, in the vicinity of London; nine at Carlisle and eleven at York; and the rest at other places. A few were pardoned, and hundreds were banished to the English colonies in North America.

More heroic measures of repression were adopted for the Highlands. The feudal tenures were there abolished, and the hereditary jurisdictions of the chiefs of the clans were bought up and transferred to the British crown. The *tartan*, or dress of the Highland clansmen, was forbidden by Act of Parliament. These severe measures, followed by a general *Act of Indemnity*, accomplished their purpose; and the dread of the Highlanders passed away forever. The sheriff's writ was soon executed in the Highlands with no more resistance than in the streets of Edinburgh.

The Young Pretender escaped from the battle-field of Culloden, and wandered about the wilds of the Highlands, a hunted fugitive, in hardship and peril, and in various disguises. His romantic adventures and narrow escapes remind us of the perilous wanderings of his granduncle, Charles II., after the battle of Worcester. With English dragoons patrolling all the roads, and English cruisers closely watching the coast, it appeared utterly impossible for this unfortunate descendant of a renowned royal race to escape. With the assistance of the young Highland maiden, Miss Flora Macdonald, he found refuge among the rough but devoted Highlanders for five months. On one occasion he was thrown upon the mercy of a band of robbers, living with them in a cave near the coast. But neither Highlander nor robber was tempted to betray him for the reward of thirty thousand pounds, the price set upon his head by King George II. With Cameron of Lochiel and his brother, along with two Irish adherents, Sullivan and Sheridan, and a few other exiles, the Young Pretender finally boarded a French privateer which arrived in Lochnanach, and sailed for France, arriving safely at Roseau, near Morlaix, in Brittany, September 29, 1746, after being chased by two British men-of-war; and the royal family of Stuart then disappeared forever from the pages of English history.

The following is the original of the famous English patriotic song of "*God Save the King*," as composed in 1745:

"God save great George our king!
Long live our noble king;
God save the king.
Send him victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us;
God save the king!

"O Lord our God, arise!
Scatter his enemies,
And make them fall;
Confound their politics,
Frustrate their knavish tricks;
On him our hopes we fix,
O, save us all!

"Thy choicest gifts in store
On George be pleased to pour;
Long may he reign.
May he defend our laws,
And ever give us cause
To say, with heart and voice,
God save the king!"

In May, 1745, the three Bourbon courts—those of France, Spain and Naples—concluded a new alliance with the Republic of Genoa; and their united armies took Tortona, Piacenza, Parma and Pavia, defeated King Charles Emmanuel III. of Sardinia at Bassignano, and also captured Alessandria, Asti and Casale. Don Philip, the son of King Philip V. of Spain, entered Naples in triumph. But in the following year the Austrians and Sardinians gained a decisive victory over the French and the Spaniards in the battle of Piacenza, June 16, 1746, compelling them to retreat across the Alps and thus to abandon Italy.

Philip V. of Spain died suddenly in 1746, and was succeeded on his throne by his son FERDINAND VI., who did not share his ambitious step-mother's desire for conquest in Italy, and therefore withdrew from the war, recalling his armies from Italy so precipitately that all Northern Italy at once fell into the possession of the Austrians. The conquering Austrians treated the city of Genoa with the greatest inhumanity, and

even attempted to harness the people in the streets to their heavy artillery, thus causing a revolt which ended in the expulsion of the Austrians with the loss of five thousand men.

In the Austrian Netherlands the French under Marshal Saxe were as successful in the campaigns of 1746 and 1747 as they had been in the campaign of 1745. In 1746 Marshal Saxe captured Brussels, Antwerp, Mons, Namur and other towns, and won a decisive victory over the Austrians under Prince Charles of Lorraine at Raucoux, on the Meuse, near Liege, October 11, 1746. In 1747 the French army under Marshal Saxe invaded Holland, and captured the whole line of fortresses on the Scheldt, from Antwerp to the sea, in less than a month. Great Britain, still under Pelham's administration, now induced the Empress Elizabeth of Russia to join the enemies of France; but, before anything could result from this accession, the French under Marshal Saxe defeated the allied English, Dutch and Hanoverian forces under the Duke of Cumberland at Laffeld, July 2, 1747, and drove them behind the Meuse.

The French invasion of Holland created alarm among the Dutch, and led to a revolution which overthrew the republican party in the Dutch Republic and restored the office of hereditary Stadtholder in the person of William IV. of Nassau-Diez, a son-in-law of King George II. of England.

In the meantime the French suffered many disasters at sea, and the British navy held almost undisputed dominion of the seas. Hostilities between England and France extended to their respective possessions in other parts of the world. In North America the almost impregnable French fortress of Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, surrendered to a British fleet under Admiral Warren and a land force furnished by Governor Shirley of the English colony of Massachusetts Bay and commanded by General William Pepperell, June 28, 1745, after a month's siege. A powerful French fleet under the Duke d' Anville, sent in 1746 to recover Louisburg, was destroyed by storms. In India, however, the French besieged and took Madras from the English in 1746.

The allies made extraordinary efforts for the campaign of 1748; and England, Holland, Austria and Sardinia engaged to arm two hundred and eighty thousand men; but these gigantic military preparations resulted in peace rather than in a continuance of the war, as France and Spain were exhausted, and England and Holland had sustained great burdens with little compensating advantages from the great struggle.

The capture of Maestricht by the French army under Marshal Saxe, in April, 1748, led to an armistice; and, after six months of negotiation, the Peace of Aix la Chapelle, signed by France, England, Holland, Austria, Spain, Genoa and Sardinia, in October, 1748, ended the War of the Austrian Succession on the basis of a mutual restitution of all conquests made during the war, while France recognized the succession of the House of Brunswick to the throne of Great Britain, and Maria Theresa was left in possession of all the hereditary Austrian territories, except Silesia, which remained with the King of Prussia, while she also ceded the Italian duchies of Parma, Piacenza and Guastalla to Don Philip of Spain. The Treaty of Madrid in 1750 restored amicable commercial relations between England and Spain.

By the terms of the Treaty of Aix la Chapelle the Young Pretender was forbidden to reside in France. He passed the rest of his life in wandering over Europe, endeavoring to raise money for another invasion of Great Britain. At length he became a confirmed drunkard, and eked out a wretched existence at Rome, where he died a miserable death, January 30, 1788, leaving no legitimate children. His younger brother, Henry Benedict, who was raised by the Pope to the dignity of Cardinal of York, died at Rome in 1807, thus ending forever the once-renowned royal race of Stuart, which had reigned over Scotland almost three and a half centuries, and over England a little more than one century. A monu-

ment erected by the great Italian sculptor, Antonio Canova, in St. Peter's at Rome, in 1816, bears three empty titles—James III., Charles III. and Henry IX.

The eight years' War of the Austrian Succession left Austria still one of the great powers of Europe, though she had been deprived of Silesia and her Italian duchies. France, the principal instigator of the war, had gained absolutely nothing by the struggle, notwithstanding the brilliant victories of the great foreigner in her service, Marshal Saxe, the greatest general of his time; while her national debt was almost doubled by the addition of a sum equal to two hundred and fifty million dollars, her commerce was nearly ruined and her navy was wellnigh destroyed. Besides these material disadvantages, France had lost her cherished position as arbitress of the affairs of Europe. Already did the gay and frivolous courtiers of Louis XV. congratulate each other that the world would last *their* day; and a current motto among these thoughtless courtiers was: "*Après moi le déluge.*" "After us the deluge."

England, by subsidizing all her allies, had vastly increased her influence in European politics. The same series of events which had undermined the unsubstantial prosperity of France had elevated Prussia to the rank of a leading European power, through the energy and military genius of her king, the period of whose reign is frequently mentioned even in universal history as the *Age of Frederick the Great.*

SECTION VI.—THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

AFTER the War of the Austrian Succession, the nations of Europe enjoyed eight years of rest, which may be considered one of the most prosperous periods of European history. Commerce flourished, and the arts of life reached a degree of elegance and refinement hitherto seldom attained. But unhappily causes of discord still existed. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle proved to be nothing more than a hollow truce. Many of the questions at issue between France and England were left unsettled, and thus grounds were furnished for a renewal of hostilities. The limits of the English colony of Nova Scotia, in North America, the right claimed by the French to connect their settlements in Louisiana and Canada by a line of forts in the rear of the English colonies on the Atlantic coast of North America, and the desire of both nations to obtain a political preponderance in India, all led to protracted disputes which soon resulted in another war.

RISE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN INDIA.

The *English East India Company*—chartered by Queen Elizabeth, December 31, 1600—was granted the exclusive privilege of trading to the East Indies. This great company of English merchants obtained valuable privileges from the native sovereigns of India, and succeeded in building up an immense trade between that Oriental land and England. For a century the Company confined itself to legitimate acts of commerce and was satisfied simply with obtaining sites for its forts and warehouses, which it defended against the hostile Mahrattas by small military forces. The Company established a factory at Surat in 1612, obtained Madras from its native sovereign in 1639, Bombay from the Portuguese in 1662, and Calcutta from Aurungzebe in 1699.

By the close of the seventeenth century the territory of the English East India Company had attained such dimensions that the three presidencies of Bombay, Madras and Calcutta were organized. Calcutta, the chief of these, was presented to the Company by Aurungzebe, and was then a small village; but under the Company it grew to be a splendid city, and ultimately became

the capital of the British possessions in India.

The success of the English encouraged the French to endeavor to secure a footing in India, under the auspices of the French East India Company, which during the seventeenth century acquired Pondicherry, Chandernagore and Mahé, and organized the two presidencies of Pondicherry and the Isle de France.

The Dutch had two posts on the mainland of India, and had exclusive possession of most of the island of Ceylon and of the Spice Islands, Java, Celebes and Sumatra, and the peninsula of Malacca. The English gradually absorbed the Dutch and Portuguese possessions in India, so that the French were left as their only European rivals in the East Indies.

When the English East India Company had grown rich and powerful it became ambitious of extending its dominion in India, and participated in the quarrels of the Great Mogul Empire, the ruling race of which was Mohammedan, while the great mass of Hindoos held fast to Brahmanism. This difference of religion caused unceasing quarrels between the native Hindoo chiefs, who sought the alliance of the English and the French, who thus became involved in the quarrels of the Hindoo princes on opposite sides. Both English and French desired to profit by these alliances with the native princes, and the French conceived the design of conquering India by means of native Hindoo troops under French officers. These were called *Sipahis*, or *Sepoys*. The English afterward adopted the same system. Both English and French were obliged to employ these native troops, as it was impossible to transport to India large bodies of European troops, or to maintain them there.

During the War of the Austrian Succession the English and French colonists interfered on opposite sides in the quarrels of the native Hindoo princes, and in 1746 the Governor of the Isle de France captured Madras from the English. Although peace had been made between England and France in 1748, the English and French colonists in India continued hostilities; and the French under Dupleix, Governor of Pondicherry, besieged Trichinopoly, after obtaining the Coromandel coast from the Viceroy of the Deccan, and were on the point of expelling the English from Hindoostan and founding a French empire in India, when Robert Clive, a poor clerk in the counting-house of the English East India Company at Madras, pushing forward in the midst of a severe thunder storm, with only five hundred men, surprised Arcot, the capital of the Nabob of the Carnatic, in 1751, and defended that place against the French and their Hindoo allies, numbering ten thousand men, whom he defeated in two battles, thus establishing the British supremacy in India.

Surajah Dowlah, the Viceroy of Bengal, attacked the English in 1756, took Calcutta and confined one hundred and forty-six English prisoners in the *Black Hole of Calcutta*—a small prison eighteen feet square—where all but twenty-three died before morning; but in 1757 the illustrious Colonel Clive retook Calcutta, and with only three thousand men, less than a third of whom were Englishmen, the rest being Sepoys, Clive defeated Surajah Dowlah, at the head of sixty-four thousand men, in the decisive battle of Plassey, June 23, 1757, which established the British Empire in India.

Bengal had been famous in European markets for its rice, its sugar, its silks and the products of its looms. During the same year the rich city of Hoogly was taken and plundered by an expedition sent by Clive.

Thus the poor boy-clerk, whom the English historian Green describes as "an idle dare-devil of a boy whom his friends had been glad to get rid of by packing him off in the Company's service as a writer at Madras"—this poor clerk, who, in despair at his early poverty, and tired of desk-work, twice attempted suicide with his pistol—became the founder of the British dominion in India, a dominion which now embraces almost all of Hindoostan and contains a population of two hundred and fifty millions, and is the brightest jewel in Victoria's crown.

THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH IN AMERICA.

In the meantime, during the wars between England and France, the English and French colonies in North America became engaged in hostilities. During *King William's War*, A. D. 1689–1697—the War of the League of Augsburg in Europe—the French and Indians committed dreadful massacres upon the New England and New York frontiers, destroying Dover in New Hampshire, in July, 1689, and burning Schenectady, in New York, in February, 1690, and massacring sixty of its inhabitants; and in 1690 the New Englanders sent a land force under a son of Governor Winthrop of Connecticut against Montreal, and a naval expedition under Sir William Phipps against Quebec, both expeditions being failures. During *Queen Anne's War*, A. D. 1702–1713—the War of the Spanish Succession in Europe—the French and Indians again spread desotion among the English frontier settlements, burning Deerfield, in Massachusetts, and massacring its inhabitants; but in 1710 an English fleet and a New England land force captured Port Royal, which was thereafter called *Annapolis*, after Queen Anne, and the French colony of *Acadia* became a British province under the name of *Nova Scotia*, or New Scotland; and in 1711 a fleet and army from England under Sir Hovenden Walker, aided by New Englanders, the whole expedition consisting of seven thousand men, proceeded against Quebec, but the vessels were wrecked at the mouth of the St. Lawrence and one thousand men perished, whereupon the expedition was abandoned. During *King George's War*, A. D. 1744–1748—the War of the Austrian Succession in Europe—an English fleet under Admiral Warren and an English colonial land force under General William Pepperell captured Louisburg, in Nova Scotia, as already noticed.

THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

The three wars between the English and the French in North America, the accounts of which we have just considered, had their origin in the European disputes of France and England. The fourth and last war, and the one which ended in the overthrow of the French power in North America, originated in disputes about the boundaries between the French and English colonial possessions. After the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, the French built forts in the rear of the English colonies, for the purpose of confining the English to the country east of the Alleghany mountains. The French claimed the Ohio Valley as a part of Louisiana, while the English claimed it as a part of Virginia.

In 1749 the King of Great Britain granted six hundred thousand acres of land on the south side of the Ohio river to an association of English and Virginia speculators, called the *Ohio Company*. The surveyors and traders sent out by the Company were made prisoners by the French. This aggressive conduct led to open hostilities.

The French under St. Pierre built three forts in North-western Pennsylvania—one at Presque Isle, now Erie; another at La Bœuf, now Waterford; and a third at the site of the present town of Franklin. Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, sent George Washington, a young Virginian, twenty-one years of age, with a remonstrance to St. Pierre, the French commander. St. Pierre, who said that he acted under the orders of Duquesne, Governor of Canada, refused to withdraw his troops from the domain of the Ohio Company as requested by Dinwiddie.

When it was known in Virginia that St. Pierre refused to withdraw his troops from the territory granted to the Ohio Company, a body of Virginians under Major George Washington was sent to expel the invaders. Washington moved toward the Ohio; and in the present Fayette county, in Pennsylvania, he built Fort Necessity. At length, on May 28, 1754, he defeated the French and killed their leader, Jumonville, in the battle of the Great Meadows. This was the first bloodshed in the long and distressing *French and Indian War*.

Already the French had seized a fort which the English had been engaged in building at the junction of the Alleghany

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

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and Monongahela rivers, and named it *Fort Duquesne*, in honor of the Governor of Canada. Washington was at length besieged by the French at Fort Necessity. On the 4th of July, 1754, he surrendered to the French, who allowed him and all his troops to march back to Virginia.

On the day of the capitulation of Fort Necessity, July 4, 1754, a congress composed of delegates from six of the Anglo-American colonies convened at Albany, in the province of New York, for the purpose of devising measures for protection against the encroachments of the French. A plan of union drawn up by Dr. Benjamin Franklin was rejected by both the home government and the colonial assemblies.

In 1755 Edward Braddock, a distinguished Irish officer, was sent to America as commander-in-chief of the English forces there. Three expeditions against the French were projected. One was to proceed against the French forts in Nova Scotia; another under Braddock was to drive the French from Fort Duquesne; and a third under Governor Shirley of Massachusetts was to move against Fort Niagara.

An English force of three thousand men, under General Winslow, landed at the head of the Bay of Fundy, in June, 1755, where they were joined by three hundred regulars, under Colonel Monckton, who assumed the chief command. The expedition took Fort Beausejour from the French on the 16th of June, and Fort Gaspereau on the 17th. The English disgraced themselves by their cruel treatment of the Acadians, many of whom they sent away and distributed among the English colonists.

In June, 1755, General Braddock, with two thousand men, marched against the French at Fort Duquesne. On the 9th of July, when within twelve miles of Fort Duquesne, the English were attacked by the French and the Indians. Braddock was killed, and his troops were completely defeated. Of all the mounted officers on the side of the English, Major Washington alone remained unhurt. After the fall of Braddock, Washington assumed the command of the English troops, and conducted them back to Virginia. Thus, the expedition against Fort Duquesne was a total failure.

The expedition under Shirley against Fort Niagara was also a complete failure. The expedition went only as far as Oswego, where Shirley built a new fort; and storms, sickness, and desertions of his Indian allies, caused him to abandon the object of the expedition.

In August, 1755, an English army under Sir William Johnson marched against Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point, which the French had erected on the western shores of Lake Champlain. A part of Johnson's force, under Colonel Williams, was defeated on the 8th of September by the French under Baron Dieskau. After this fight, in which Williams was killed, Dieskau moved forward and fought with Johnson the battle of Lake George. In this battle Dieskau was defeated, wounded and taken prisoner. After the battle, Johnson built Fort William Henry, and garrisoned it, as well as Fort Edward, with some of his troops; after which he returned to Albany and dispersed his army. The inefficient Lord Loudon was sent to America to take the chief command of the English forces there.

In August, 1756, the Marquis de Montcalm, with a body of French and Indians, crossed Lake Ontario from Canada, and captured the English forts at Oswego with fourteen hundred prisoners. The only thing accomplished by the English in 1756 was the chastisement of the Indians in Western Pennsylvania. On the 8th of September, Colonel John Armstrong fell upon the savages at Kittanning, their chief town on the Alleghany river, killed their principal chiefs, and destroyed the village.

In Northern New York a force of French and Indians, under Montcalm, marched against Fort William Henry in August, 1757. Colonel Monro, who commanded the small English force which garrisoned the fort, called upon General Webb, the English commander at Fort Edward, for assistance. The cowardly Webb refused any aid;

and the gallant Monro was compelled to surrender, after a brave defense. After their surrender, the English troops were allowed to march out with the honors of war; but no sooner had they left the fort, under a promise of protection, than despite the efforts of Montcalm to prevent it, many of them were massacred by the Indians in the French army. Montcalm expressed great sorrow at this sad occurrence.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR IN EUROPE.

It was very evident that Austria and Prussia could not long remain at peace; as the Empress Maria Theresa, who could not forget the loss of Silesia, was determined to recover that province. She spent the eight years after the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in forming alliances with the other courts of Europe against the great Frederick II. of Prussia, for the purpose of realizing her determination. Her resentment toward Great Britain, her best ally, which had advised her to yield that province, was almost as great as that against the King of Prussia for seizing it by force in the time of her humiliation and distress. Her great Minister, Kaunitz, had spent five years at Paris as Austrian ambassador, and had confided to her a scheme for ultimately uniting France and Austria against Prussia.

The two causes of dispute already mentioned had no direct connection with each other, yet mutual interests led to the formation of alliances. The strangest feature of all was the alliance of Austria and France, nations that had been enemies for three centuries; and the coalition of Prussia and England, nations that had hitherto appeared extremely jealous of each other. This change of policy on the part of France was brought about by Madame de Pompadour, the favorite mistress of the dissolute Louis XV., who, captivated by a flattering letter from the Empress Maria Theresa, and angry at the sarcasm which the King of Prussia had uttered against her, was easily won to the side of the Austrian empress. The profligate Empress Elizabeth of Russia, affronted at the sarcastic manner in which Frederick spoke of her, was easily induced by her Prime Minister, Bestucheff, to conclude an alliance with Maria Theresa against Prussia. Augustus III., Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, who was also offended at Frederick's sarcasm, formed an alliance with the Austrian empress-queen. Sweden, through the influence of the French court, joined the coalition against the Prussian monarch. Thus Austria, France, Russia, Saxony and Sweden were united against Prussia and England. The English carried on a successful war against the French on the ocean, in North America and in the East and West Indies; but they could give little effective aid to the Prussian king against the powerful enemies who threatened to wrest from him a large portion of his dominions, and reduce him to the condition of an Elector of Brandenburg. But the great military ability of Frederick, and the splendid discipline of the Prussian army, enabled Prussia to come forth from the gigantic struggle powerful and victorious.

Although Maria Theresa concluded an alliance with France, she bound herself by two treaties to observe neutrality in the war between Great Britain and France.

The *Seven Years' War* extended around the world, and involved the English and French colonies in America, Asia and Africa; and thenceforth the history of England was largely the history of the civilized world.

The war opened in Europe with a series of disasters for the English, the most serious of which was the capture of the island of Minorca by a French expedition under the Duke de Richelieu. A British fleet under Admiral Byng was sent from Gibraltar to the relief of the garrison of Minorca, but Byng returned after a partial and indecisive engagement with the French fleet, June, 1756. He was court-martialed for cowardice the next year, and was shot in the presence of his whole fleet, but he showed that he was no coward by giving the command to fire. The public indignation caused by Byng's failure soon turned to pity, and when passion had cooled it was felt that the

brave admiral had suffered for the fault of the Ministry.

The English disasters in Europe and America forced the Duke of Newcastle to resign; whereupon King George II. appointed William Pitt, the "Great Commoner," to the head of the Ministry. Pitt was the son of a wealthy Governor of Madras, and had been in Parliament since 1734. He was the first great statesman that had controlled the destinies of Great Britain since the death of Sir Robert Walpole, and like Walpole he was a Whig in politics. He was created Secretary of State in 1756, but the failure of the early expeditions forced him to resign four months afterward, and the Duke of Newcastle was recalled.

FREDERICK THE GREAT.

The King of Prussia did not wait to be attacked; but, resolving to surprise his enemies by an unexpected blow, he was first in the field. In August, 1756, he suddenly burst into Saxony with an army of seventy

thousand men, took possession of Leipsic, Wittenberg and Dresden, and blockaded the Saxon army, which had established a strongly-fortified camp at Pirna, on the Elbe. At Dresden he seized the government papers, and caused the secret dispatches of his enemies proving their designs against him to be published in order to justify his conduct before the world. At the head of only twenty-five thousand men, Frederick the Great, in the battle of Lowositz, defeated fifty thousand Austrians under General Brown, who were marching to the relief of the Saxons; after which he compelled the Saxon forces, reduced by hunger to fourteen thousand men, to surrender themselves prisoners of war, and forced them into the Prussian service. The Elector Frederick Augustus III. now abandoned Saxony, and retired into his kingdom of Poland, where he remained until the end of the war. Thus Frederck the Great conquered Saxony in his first campaign in the Seven Years' War.

Frederick remained in possession of Saxony; but the armies of the allies had now taken the field against him, and the Diet of the German Empire declared war against him for violating the Land Peace. The northern states of Germany protested against this proceeding of the Diet, and their sovereigns hired out their subjects to serve in the British armies in preference to furnishing the contingents demanded by the Emperor Francis I.

The enemies of Frederick the Great assembled immense armies for the campaign of 1757. A Russian army of one hundred and thirty thousand men entered Prussia on the east; a Swedish force of twenty thousand men was preparing to march into the Prussian province of Pomerania; eighty thousand French troops were advancing from the west; and one hundred and eighty thousand Austrians were in the field.

The French invaders were divided into three armies—the army of the Upper Rhine under the Duke de Richelieu, who had gained a brilliant reputation by the conquest of Minorca, and was the most popular general of the time; the army of the Main under the Prince of Soubise, Madame de Pompadour's favorite; and the army of the Lower Rhine under Marshal d'Estrées.

While the allied armies numbered more than four hundred thousand men, the combined Prussian and Hanoverian troops did not amount to two hundred thousand. The Hanoverian troops were under the command of the Duke of Cumberland, the eldest surviving son of King George II. of Great Britain.

After some maneuvering by which he completely deceived the Austrians, the King of Prussia began the campaign of 1757 by invading Bohemia. At the head of seventy thousand men, Frederick attacked seventy-five thousand Austrians at Prague, May 6, 1757. The assaults of the Prussians were at first repulsed, and the old Prussian Marshal Schwerin fell fighting at the head of his regiment; but the fall of the brave Austrian Marshal Brown finally decided the battle, which ended in a glorious victory for the Prussians. Frederick, however, purchased his triumph at a heavy cost, as twelve thousand five hundred of his brave troops lay dead or wounded on the field of battle. Seeking to follow up his victory at Prague, Frederick the Great attacked the Austrians under Count Daun, who occupied a strong position at Kolin, June 18, 1757. After a bloody battle, in which the Austrians at first gave way, the Prussian king was so badly defeated that he was obliged to raise the siege of Prague and to evacuate Bohemia as speedily as possible.

The disastrous result of the battle of Kolin deprived Frederick the Great of the fruits of his former victories; and it seemed as though he must fall before the overwhelming power of his numerous enemies, who now threatened him on all sides. Through the mediation of Denmark, his English and Hanoverian allies, under the Duke of Cumberland, after having been defeated by the French army commanded by Marshal d' Estrées at Hastembeck, were compelled by the disgraceful Convention of Klosterseven to lay down their arms, thus securing the

neutrality of Hanover and Brunswick, and leaving the French at liberty to operate against Frederick in Saxony. A Russian army of one hundred thousand men, under Apraxin, invaded Prussia on the east, defeated twenty-four thousand Prussians under Lehwald at Gross Jägerndorf, and advanced against Frederick. Twenty thousand Swedish troops entered Pomerania and advanced toward the Prussian capital. An Austrian army invaded Silesia and besieged Schweidnitz, while another Austrian force made its way through Lusatia and laid Berlin under contribution. A Russian fleet captured Memel.

In his momentary despair, Frederick the Great even meditated suicide; but he took braver counsel, and roused himself to collect the forces which still remained to him. Though the dissolute Empress Elizabeth of Russia was in arms against him, her heir was an ardent admirer and friend of Prussia's

FREDERICK THE GREAT AFTER THE BATTLE OF KOLIN.

warrior-king. The Duke de Richelieu, the French commander, inherited the anti-Austrian policy of his great uncle, the renowned cardinal-statesman, and opposed extreme measures against the King of Prussia; while the national enmities between the German imperial troops and their French allies weakened their efficiency.

In his desperate situation Frederick the Great saw that he must strike a decisive blow in order to save himself from utter ruin. He accordingly marched into Saxony for the purpose of expelling the French from that country. With only twenty thousand men, Frederick occupied a height at the little village of Rossbach, where he was soon confronted by seventy thousand French and German imperial troops, under the Prince of Soubise, a favorite of Madame de Pompadour. The object of the French and their German imperial allies was to see whether the King of Prussia would venture to attack them. They resolved to surround Frederick, take him and his whole army prisoners, and thus put an end to the war at once. At length, at two o'clock in the afternoon of November 5, 1757, Frederick gave his orders to attack; and immediately his troops fell so suddenly and irresistibly, and with such rapidity of movement, upon the enemy that in less than half an hour the French and their allies fled from the field in dismay, and Frederick won a glorious victory. Some of the French troops fled into the middle of Germany, while many did not stop in their flight until they had crossed the Rhine. On this memorable field Frederick lost only five hundred and fifteen men in killed and wounded. He took seven thousand prisoners, among whom were eleven generals. He invited the most distinguished of his prisoners to sup with him; and, after expressing his regret at not being able to afford them a better entertainment, he said: "Gentlemen, I did not expect you so soon, nor in such large numbers."

By his victory at Rossbach, Frederick the Great recovered the whole of Saxony. He next marched into Silesia, which province had been taken possession of by a large Austrian army under Prince Charles of Lorraine. On December 5, 1757, exactly one month after the battle of Rossbach, Frederick, with only thirty thousand men, met ninety thousand Austrians under Charles of Lorraine at Leuthen. Frederick immediately took possession of some heights near by, which masked the movements of his troops; and then deceiving the Austrians by a false attack upon their right wing, he suddenly turned and attacked their left so fiercely that it was routed before the right could render it any assistance; and, after a conflict of three hours, Frederick won one of the most brilliant victories of modern times. In the midst of the battle, all along the Prussian lines was sung the hymn, "*Nun danket alle Gott.*" The entire Prussian loss was only five thousand men; while the Austrian loss was over twenty-eight thousand in killed, wounded and prisoners. Prince Charles of Lorraine at once resigned his command, and was appointed Governor of the Austrian Netherlands.

In July, 1757, King George II. of England found it necessary to recall Pitt to the direction of the foreign policy of the British government. A compromise was effected between Mr. Pitt and the Duke of Newcastle, by which Pitt obtained control of the foreign policy of the government, which was all he cared for, and left to the Duke of Newcastle the management of the home politics of England, a task in which the latter was without a rival.

Pitt entered office with the full determination to restore the former power of Great Britain. Said he: "I want to call England out of that enervate state in which twenty thousand men from France can shake her." Energy and forecast marked every movement of Mr. Pitt's administration; and thenceforth the war was favorable to the English, who, after a series of brilliant victories, were finally enabled to effect the conquest of the French American possessions. Pitt's spirit seemed to be breathed into the British fleets in all the seas and into the British armies in all parts of the world.

"With one hand he smote the House of Bourbon, and with the other he wielded the democracy of England."

Frederick the Great recognized in Mr. Pitt a kindred spirit, and said: "England has been a long time in labor, but she has at last brought forth a man." Pitt had a great advantage over other English statesmen in knowing himself to be honest and believing in the truth of the principles which he advocated. His strong, earnest nature, his scorn of the corruption around him, and which he disdained to engage in, aroused the surprise and animosity of all his contemporaries, who were both corrupt and insincere. He scorned to stoop to their level,

FREDERICK THE GREAT AT LEUTHEN.

and his self-respect kept him in the path of rectitude.

William Pitt was the greatest orator of modern times, and his matchless eloquence gave him such a control over the House of Commons as no other British Minister had ever enjoyed. His unflinching courage in denouncing the shams and hypocrisy of his time gained for him the confidence and affection of the English people, who called him the "Great Commoner." He did not seek the popularity which his great services acquired for him. He stood alone at the zenith of his popularity, with scarcely half a dozen personal followers. In that corrupt age of British politics, Mr. Pitt was a pure as well as a great man. "The Secretary stood alone. Modern degeneracy had not reached him." He always kept in view the fact that he was the leader of the English *people*, and he was true to the trust which they reposed in him. He began his administration by giving a firm and hearty support to Prussia's great warrior-king; and the results amply vindicated this policy, as we shall presently see.

The brilliant achievements of Frederick the Great at Rossbach and Leuthen astonished the world and at once ranked him as the greatest general of the age, while they aroused the greatest enthusiasm in England for the King of Prussia and his army. London was brilliantly illuminated in his honor, and Mr. Pitt declared in the House of Commons that the American colonies of the French were to be conquered through Germany. Under the direction of that great statesman, the British government furnished a subsidy of seven hundred thousand pounds sterling to the King of Prussia, and sent another army into Germany. The Convention of Klosterseven was repudiated, and the King of Prussia was requested to name the commander of the British and Hanoverian forces in Germany. Frederick selected Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, brother of the reigning Duke of Brunswick. After reassembling his army, Ferdinand announced to the Duke de Richelieu the renewal of hostilities by Great Britain and Hanover.

The campaign of 1758 was commenced by Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, the commander of the British and Hanoverian army, numbering only thirty thousand men. With this inferior force Ferdinand drove the French army of ninety thousand men from Hanover, Brunswick, East Friesland and Hesse, across the Rhine early in the spring with heavy loss; the French troops having entirely lost their efficiency in living by plunder. Ferdinand routed the Count de Clermont, the successor of the Duke de Richelieu, at Krefeld with heavy loss. The victorious Hanoverians took Ruremond and Düsseldorf, and their scouting parties penetrated into the Austrian Netherlands as far as Brussels. The French retrieved some of their losses by a victory at Cassel, but nothing more of any importance transpired in that quarter during 1758.

After some important movements against the Austrians in Silesia and Moravia, Frederick the Great marched against the Russians, who were perpetrating the most barbarous atrocities in the Prussian province of Brandenburg, sparing neither age nor sex. The regular forces of Russia were accompanied by a barbarous horde of Cossacks and Kalmuck Tartars; and these invaded the province of Pomerania, and besieged and burned the town of Küstrin, while the fortress still held out. Frederick, at the head of thirty thousand men, met sixty thousand Russians under Fermor near the village of Zorndorf, not far from Frankfort-on-the-Oder. Here was fought one of the bloodiest battles of the Seven Years' War, August 24, 1758. It began at nine o'clock in the morning, and ended at ten in the evening, when nineteen thousand Russians and eleven thousand Prussians lay dead or wounded on the sanguinary field. Frederick was victorious and captured one hundred and three cannon, and the Russians were obliged to evacuate the Prussian dominions and to retreat into Poland.

After the battle of Zorndorf, Frederick the Great marched into Saxony to the assistance of his brother Henry, who was hard pressed by the Austrians. Frederick was

surprised and disastrously defeated at Hochkirchen by the Austrians under Count Daun, October 14, 1758. In this bloody engagement Frederick lost all his artillery and baggage, and nine thousand men. This Austrian victory caused great rejoicing in Vienna, and that city was brilliantly illuminated.

The King of Prussia was not discouraged by his disaster at Hochkirchen. Daun was foiled in all attempts to follow up his victory; and Frederick again expelled the Austrians from Silesia, and then returned to Saxony, and, after compelling Daun to raise the sieges of Dresden and Leipsic, drove him into Bohemia.

Pitt's enterprising spirit animated the officers of the British army and navy. Several French ships-of-war were captured by the British navy. Admiral Sir Edward Hawke dispersed and drove on shore a French armament destined for North America, and his fleet held command of the English Channel. Two successive British naval expeditions proceeded to the French coast; but the only thing thus accomplished was the destruction of Cherbourg—a triumph dearly purchased by the subsequent loss of some of the best troops in the hasty embarkation.

France, England and Prussia now signified their readiness to treat for peace; but Maria Theresa, whose finances were in a more prosperous condition than those of Frederick the Great, and whose resentment was not yet appeased, refused to listen to any peace proposals. The Duke de Choiseul, who had been recently appointed to the head of the French Ministry, thus failing in his more pacific overtures, concluded a new treaty with Maria Theresa less favorable to Austria than the former treaty; in consequence of which the French prosecuted the war with less vigor.

Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, the commander of the British and Hanoverian army, conducted a successful campaign against the French during the year 1759. The campaign opened in favor of the French, who repulsed Ferdinand's attack on their camp at Bergen, near Frankfort-on-the-Main, April 13, 1759, and captured Münster in July of the same year; but in the sanguinary battle of Minden, August 1, 1759, Ferdinand defeated the French with the loss of eight thousand men, chiefly through the valor of his six regiments of British infantry, and thus compelled them to abandon Hanover and Westphalia and to make a hasty retreat across the Rhine.

At the opening of the campaign of 1759, the Austrians overran Saxony and threatened Berlin; while the Russians under Soltikoff defeated the Prussian detachments on the Oder, menaced Silesia, and at length effected a junction with the Austrians under Laudon. Frederick the Great was in a most perilous situation. In the midst of these accumulating dangers he resolved upon striking an effective blow. He at length set his army in motion; and, with only fifty thousand men, he attacked the united Austrian and Russian armies under Laudon and Soltikoff, numbering one hundred thousand men, at Kunersdorf, near Frankfort-on-the-Oder, August 12, 1759. Frederick was at first successful, and the enemy were driven from the field; but the stubborn Russians rallied and renewed the fight; and a terrific charge of the Austrian cavalry, headed by Laudon in person, put the entire Prussian army to rout. This disaster was a grievous blow to Frederick the Great. The Prussian loss was more than eighteen thousand men, and the total Austrian and Russian loss amounted to almost sixteen thousand men. Berlin was in danger of falling into the hands of the enemy, and Frederick's cause seemed ruined; but, instead of following up their victory, the Austrian and Russian generals, who were jealous of each other, spent so much time in quarreling that the King of Prussia was enabled to collect another army; and Berlin was again safe.

At this unfortunate period of his military career Frederick the Great was constantly receiving intelligence of defeats sustained by his detachments, and his situation was extremely dangerous. One of the Prussian generals was defeated at Maxen, and an-

other at Meissen. Dresden fell into the hands of the Austrians, and Marshal Daun established his winter-quarters at that city. Though Frederick the Great had reëntered Saxony and driven out the German imperial army which had captured Leipsic, Torgau and Wittenberg, the cold weather finally drove him into winter-quarters.

In the meantime France sought revenge for the destruction of Cherbourg, but the vigilant activity of the British navy frustrated the projected invasion of Great Britain by a French armament under the Young Pretender Charles Edward Stuart. British fleets blockaded the French ports of Dunkirk, Brest and Toulon; and one of these fleets under Admiral Sir George Rodney bombarded Havre and destroyed a part of the magazines and transports which there lay ready for the intended invading expedition. A French squadron which contrived to escape from Toulon and slip through the Straits of Gibraltar into the Atlantic was pursued and defeated by the British fleet under Admiral Boscawen off Cape Lagos, in Portugal, August 18, 1759.

A large French fleet under Admiral Conflans which sailed from Brest, during an easterly gale which drove the British blockading squadron under Admiral Sir Edward Hawke from the coast, was encountered and dispersed by Hawke's fleet among the rocks and shoals of Quiberon Bay, November 20, 1759. The pilot on board Hawke's flag-ship remonstrated against the daring admiral's decision to attack the French fleet on so dangerous a coast and in the midst of a severe gale. Said the brave Hawke: "You have done your duty in this remonstrance. Now lay me alongside the French admiral." And the gallant mariners of England won imperishable renown there, amid the rocks and shoals in the darkness and the tempest. The French fleet was destroyed or dispersed, thus saving England from all danger of a French invasion in the interest of the Young Pretender.

Though Admiral Hawke's great victory delivered the English from all fears of a French invasion, some alarm was excited by the enterprises of Commodore Thurot, a French seaman, who escaped from Dunkirk with five frigates and hovered along the coast of Scotland. After failing to make any impression on Scotland, this intrepid French seaman entered the Irish Sea and landed a force on the Irish coast at Carrickfergus, which was stormed and plundered by the French invaders. Upon receiving intelligence of the defeat of Admiral Conflans by Hawke's fleet, Thurot steered for the shores of his own country, but was swiftly pursued by a British squadron under Commodore Elliot, and was overtaken near the Isle of Man, where he was defeated and killed, while all his vessels were taken by the victorious English, February 28, 1760.

England had never yet played so great a part in the great drama of the world's history as during the Seven Years' War. The year 1759 was one of brilliant triumphs for the English in all parts of the world, and is one of the proudest in the annals of English warfare. The news of the victories at Minden and off Cape Lagos arrived in September. The tidings of the capture of Quebec reached England in October. Intelligence of Hawke's victory in Quiberon Bay arrived before the end of November. Said Horace Walpole, the distinguished son of Sir Robert Walpole, laughing: "We are forced to ask every morning what victory there is, for fear of missing one."

It was not so much in the number, as in the importance, of the victories that the Seven Years' War was without an example. Many of these British and Prussian victories determined the destinies of the world for ages. With the victories of Frederick the Great at Prague, Rossbach, Leuthen, Zorndorf, Liegnitz and Torgau began the regeneration of Germany, its intellectual supremacy over Europe, and its political union under the leadership of Prussia. With Clive's victory at Plassey began England's empire in the East and the influence of Europe in the land of the Ganges and the Indus for the first time since its invasion by Alexander the Great. Wolfe's victory at

Quebec assigned North America forever to the Anglo-Saxon race, and laid the foundations of the Republic of the United States of America.

In 1759 Russia, Sweden and Denmark entered into an alliance for mutual defense and to maintain the commercial neutrality of the Baltic. All the belligerent powers made vigorous preparations for the campaign of 1760 in Germany, although the English people had become weary of the war in Continental Europe, and the finances of France had fallen into a state of lamentable disorder. The French people exhibited a truly generous conduct toward their sovereign. The chief nobility and gentry sent their plate to the national treasury to be coined into money for the public service.

For the campaign of 1760 in Germany, a French army of almost a hundred thousand men was assembled in Westphalia under the command of the Duke de Broglio, while an inferior French army was formed on the Rhine under the leadership of the Count de St. Germain. The French occupied Hanover and Hesse, defeated the British and Hanoverian forces under Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick at Corbach and at Kloster, and maintained their possession of Hanover during the winter; but the French generals wasted their strength and energies in quarreling with each other.

The campaign of 1760 opened most disastrously for the King of Prussia. His general, Fouquet, after gallantly maintaining himself for some time in Silesia against a superior Austrian force under Laudon, was defeated at Landshut, June 24, 1760, with the loss of ten thousand men killed, wounded and made prisoners. Frederick himself afterward besieged Dresden; but he was obliged to retire, on the approach of Laudon with a strong Austrian force for the relief of the garrison. Laudon, however, failed in the siege of Breslau.

Frederick now marched into Silesia to recover that province from the Austrians. While the Austrians and Russians, in number one hundred and eighty thousand, were preparing to surround the King of Prussia, and his complete overthrow appeared certain, he suddenly and furiously assailed the astonished Laudon, at the head of the Austrian detachment, at Liegnitz, August 16, 1760. Laudon's force was terribly defeated with the loss of ten thousand men in killed and wounded, before the reinforcement under Daun could come to the scene of action. Both Laudon and Daun fled to the Katzbach, and Frederick the Great was again master of Silesia; but Berlin was taken possession of by Austrian and Russian troops, its arsenals and founderies were destroyed, and the hereditary dominions of Frederick were plundered and devastated.

Frederick next marched into Saxony with the view of expelling the Austrians from that country. On November 3, 1760, he fiercely attacked the intrenched position of the Austrians under Daun at Torgau. After a day of the most frightful carnage, Frederick gained a complete victory, but at the cost of fourteen thousand of his gallant troops, who lay dead on the field of battle. The consequence of this battle was that all of Saxony, except Dresden, was again in the hands of the King of Prussia; and the Austrian, Russian and Swedish forces were obliged to evacuate the Prussian dominions.

ENGLISH CONQUEST OF CANADA.

In the meantime, while the Seven Years' War had thus been raging in Europe, hostilities had been prosecuted between the English and the French in North America. As we have seen, the first four years of the French and Indian War had been one continuous series of disasters to the English, while the corrupt and inefficient Ministry of the Duke of Newcastle sent its incompetent favorites to manage the English interests in the New World. But after William Pitt had become Prime Minister of Great Britain, in July, 1757, conquest shone upon the British arms in North America; and the campaigns of the next three years were a series of brilliant triumphs which were signalized by the total subversion of French powers in North America. In 1757 General Abercrombie was sent to North America to

take the chief command of the English forces there.

Early in July, 1758, Generals Amherst and Wolfe with English troops, and Admiral Boscawen with a British squadron, laid siege to Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton. After a vigorous siege, Louisburg and the island of Cape Breton were surrendered to the English, July 26, 1758.

At the beginning of July, 1758, an English force of fifteen thousand men, under General Abercrombie, moved against Ticonderoga. On the 6th a part of this force, under Lord Howe, defeated the French, but Lord Howe was among the slain. Abercrombie continued his advance, and attacked Ticonderoga on July 8th, but met with a disastrous repulse. He then fell back, and abandoned the object of the expedition. On August 27, 1758, Fort Frontenac, on the site of the present city of Kingston, in Canada, was captured by Colonel Bradstreet, at the head of an English force which had been sent against it by Abercrombie.

In 1758 an English force, under General John Forbes, proceeded against Fort Duquesne. When within fifty miles of the fort a council of war decided to abandon the enterprise; but when prisoners, who were brought in at this moment, gave every assurance that the garrison of Fort Duquesne was weak, it was resolved to move forward. A part of the expedition, under Major Grant, had been defeated by the French and Indians on September 21, 1758. Washington and his Virginians led the advance against Fort Duquesne. The French evacuated the Fort on the approach of the English, and fled down the Ohio in boats; and late in November, 1758, the English flag waved over Fort Duquesne, the name of which was changed to Fort Pitt, in honor of the great English statesman. The flourishing city of Pittsburg now occupies the site of the fort.

The English planned three expeditions for the campaign of 1759. One, under Generals Prideaux and Johnson, was to attempt the capture of Fort Niagara; another, under Lord Amherst, was to take possession of Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point; and a third, under General James Wolfe, was designed for the reduction of Quebec, the strongest French fortress in America.

In July, 1759, the English, under Generals Prideaux and Johnson, commenced the siege of Fort Niagara. On the 15th Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a mortar; and the command of the English army devolved upon Johnson, who continued the siege until the 25th, when the French surrendered the fort.

On the approach of the English army under Lord Amherst, in July, 1759, Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point were evacuated by their French garrisons, and were immediately taken possession of by the English.

In June, 1759, an English force of eight thousand men, under General Wolfe, arrived before Quebec. For two months the English besieged the city, and destroyed a large part of it by means of hot shot. On July 31, 1759, in the midst of a terrific thunder-storm, a portion of the English army under Colonel Monckton fought with the French the battle of Montmorenci. At length a council of war was held by the English officers, and it was resolved to storm the French camp. Accordingly, on the night of September 12, 1759, the English army, led by Wolfe in person, scaled the Heights of Abraham, in the rear of Quebec.

The only voice that broke the silence of the night was the voice of Wolfe himself, as he repeated the following stanza of Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard:*

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
All that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour.
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

As Wolfe closed this stanza he remarked: "I had rather be the author of that poem than take Quebec."

On the following morning, September 13, 1759, a furious battle ensued on the Plains of Abraham. The commanders of both armies fell mortally wounded while fighting bravely at the head of their respective forces. As Wolfe lay dying on the ground he heard

an officer exclaim: "They run! They run!" The dying general raised himself on his elbow, and asked: "Who run?" The officer replied: "The enemy, the enemy." Thereupon Wolfe murmured, as his soul passed away from earth: "Then I die happy." When Montcalm, conscious that his wound was fatal, asked the surgeon how long he had to live, the surgeon replied: "Perhaps a day, perhaps less." The gallant French commander replied: "So much the better. I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." Thus died both commanders, the one rejoicing in his country's victory, and the other unwilling to survive his country's defeat. In the city of Quebec stands a fine monument erected to the memory of both, having the name of Wolfe on one side and that of Montcalm on the other—a noble tribute of a nation, grateful to a patriot son, and generous to a manly foe. Five days after the battle, September 18, 1759, Quebec was surrendered to the victorious English.

In the spring of 1760 a French force under M. Levi, Montcalm's successor, attempted to recover Quebec, and defeated the English army commanded by General Murray in the bloody battle of Sillery, three miles below Quebec, April 28, 1760. The English fell back to Quebec, where they were besieged; but the French, becoming alarmed at the supposed approach of a large English fleet, hastily abandoned the siege and retired.

On September 8, 1760, Montreal, the last stronghold of the French in America, surrendered to the English army under General Murray, who had collected eighteen thousand men for the reduction of the city. The fall of Montreal was the death-blow to French power in North America, and the conquest of Canada by the English was complete.

In 1759 the Cherokee Indians in Georgia began a war against the white people of Georgia and the Carolinas. After a war of two years, the Indians were subdued by Colonel Grant. In 1763 Pontiac, a famous Ottowa chief, secretly formed a confederacy of Indian tribes to expel the English from the country west of the Alleghany mountains. Within a fortnight this sagacious chief seized all the English posts west of the Alleghanies, except Detroit, Niagara and Fort Pitt. The Indians were soon subdued, and in 1765 Pontiac was killed by an Illinois Indian on the Mississippi river.

ENGLISH CONQUEST OF INDIA.

The year 1760—which witnessed the complete overthrow of the French dominion in North America—was also signalized by the total subversion of the French power in India, through the genius of Clive and other British officers. M. Lally, the French Governor of Pondicherry, attacked Madras, but was thoroughly defeated by the English under Colonel Coote in a decisive battle at Wandewash, January 21, 1760, which utterly destroyed the French influence in the Carnatic. During this campaign in the Carnatic, a British fleet under Admiral Pococke defeated a French fleet off the coast of the island of Ceylon, thus establishing the British naval supremacy in the Indian seas, and raising hopes for the expulsion of the French from Hindoostan.

A Dutch armament arrived in Bengal under circumstances which aroused the suspicions of Colonel Clive, who ordered that it should be immediately attacked by land and sea. Clive was engaged in a rubber of whist when an express from Colonel Forde brought him the news of the advance of the Dutch. He replied by the following pencil-note on a slip of paper torn from Colonel Forde's letter: "Dear Forde, fight them immediately, and I'll send you an order of council to-morrow." Colonel Forde followed Clive's instructions, and the Dutch were compelled to surrender. The authorities of Holland made ample apologies to Great Britain for this infraction of treaties.

Conquest still shone on the British arms in India during 1761, when Colonel Coote reduced Pondicherry and Mahé, thus completely shattering the French power in India, and giving full control of the commerce of that vast Oriental peninsula to the English East India Company.

CLOSE OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

The British conquests in North America and India made the English people extremely tired of the war in Germany. They complained loudly of the inactivity of their navy, and asserted that the French islands in the West Indies, which were far more valuable to a great commercial nation than half the German Empire, might have been acquired with far less risk and loss than that caused by the protection given to the useless Electorate of Hanover. In the midst of the political disputes in England arising from the growth of this peace sentiment, King George II. died in the seventy-seventh year of his age and the thirty-fourth of his reign, October 25, 1760. He was succeeded as King of Great Britain and Ireland, and Elector of Hanover, by his grandson GEORGE III., a young prince in his twenty-third year, whose father, Frederick, Prince of Wales, had died several years before. Unlike his two predecessors of the same dynasty, George III. was born and educated in England; and in his opening address to the British Parliament he said: "Born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton." The bitter feelings between Hanoverians and Jacobites had become a thing of the past, and some of the leading partisans of the Stuarts accepted places in the young king's household.

The death of George II. produced little change in European politics; but that of the peaceful Ferdinand VI. of Spain the year before, A. D. 1759, had important consequences. Ferdinand VI. was succeeded on the throne of Spain by his brother Charles IV. of Naples and Sicily, who resigned his Italian kingdom when he thus became King CHARLES III. of Spain. His abdication of the crown of Naples and Sicily was in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, by which it was agreed that when he became King of Spain he should abdicate his Neapolitan crown in favor of his brother Don Philip, Duke of Parma and Piacenza, and that those Italian duchies should be relinquished to the German Emperor. By the mediation of France with Austria, Charles III. was enabled to procure the Neapolitan throne for his third son Ferdinand IV., while Don Philip was allowed to retain Parma and Piacenza.

In gratitude for the interest which the French court manifested in his brother, King Charles III. of Spain signed a third *Family Compact*, which bound the French and Spanish Bourbons to afford each other mutual aid, and secretly prepared to unite with France in the war against Great Britain. The haughty conduct of the British diplomatists, which justly offended Spanish pride, greatly contributed to strengthen the resolution of the court of Madrid, especially as the naval superiority of the British menaced Spain's communication with her American colonies.

Negotiations for peace were begun by the courts of Versailles and St. James early in 1761, but with little sincerity on either side. The Duke de Choiseul, the French Prime Minister, relied on the secret promises of assistance from Spain, thus making it impossible to arrange preliminaries; while Mr. Pitt was fully determined to humble the House of Bourbon.

The campaign of 1761 in Germany was carried on languidly by all parties. Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, in command of the British and Hanoverian forces, was defeated by the French at Grünsberg and driven out of Hesse; but he afterward drove the French from their strong position at Wellinghausen. The King of Prussia, exhausted by his very victories in the preceding campaigns, was obliged to act on the defensive; and, though he lost no important battle, the Austrians under Laudon took Schweidnitz by surprise, making prisoners of its garrison of three thousand six hundred men, and thus regaining possession of Silesia, which enabled them to establish their winter-quarters in that province; while the Russians besieged and took Colberg, thus making themselves masters of Pomerania, which enabled them to fix their winter-quarters in that province.

The British navy still maintained its supremacy at sea in actions with single

FREDERICK WILLIAM VON SEYDLITZ.

HANS JOACHIM VON ZIETHEN.

FREDERICK THE GREAT.

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French ships and small French squadrons; while Belleisle, on the very coast of France, was captured by a British armament under Admiral Keppel and General Hodgson. Terrified by these disasters, the French court made an ineffectual effort for peace; after which it applied to King Charles III. of Spain for assistance, in accordance with the provisions of the Family Compact.

King George III.—who had married the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, September 8, 1761, and whose coronation was performed with great pomp and magnificence, September 22, 1761—was anxious to bring the Seven Years' War to a close. The chief obstacle in the way of the king's peace-at-any-price policy was his great Prime Minister, William Pitt, whom he hated. Pitt would not consent to desert the King of Prussia, although such a step would have brought about an immediate settlement with France.

Mr. Pitt had the earliest information of the Family Compact, and he wished to strike the first blow against Spain by seizing her supplies of gold and silver on their way from her American colonies. Pitt's proposal was very coldly received by the other members of the British Ministry. They were not in possession of all the information which their colleague had obtained, and they were also jealous of Pitt's superior influence and his superior popularity. His plan was firmly opposed by the king, and was finally rejected by his colleagues, whereupon he immediately resigned office. As a mark of gratitude for his eminent public services, a pension of three thousand pounds annually was conferred on him for three lives, and his wife was created Baroness of Chatham.

Pitt's resignation was generally attributed to the secret influence of his successor, the Scotch lord, William Stuart, Earl of Bute, who was supposed to have obtained a complete ascendency over the king's mind. This suspicion aroused great popular dissatisfaction, which was openly expressed on the Lord Mayor's Day, when His Majesty and his retinue proceeded to dine in London. The king and the queen were received with extreme coldness and silence, and the Earl of Bute was grossly insulted by the populace, but Mr. Pitt was welcomed with the loudest acclamations. The fierce political disputes which Pitt's resignation caused in England produced effects which were felt throughout Europe. The hopes of the French court were revived, and England's German allies were greatly dispirited.

Early in 1762 King George III., who, unlike the first two Georges, was a Tory in politics, drove the Duke of Newcastle from the Ministry, in which he had held the management of home affairs since the death of his brother, Henry Pelham, in 1754. For the first time since the accession of the House of Brunswick the Whigs were driven from power, and a purely Tory Ministry under the leadership of the Earl of Bute was formed.

But the new Tory Ministry showed great alacrity in maintaining the honor of England abroad, and one of its first acts fully justified Pitt's foresight. When the hostile designs of Spain could no longer be concealed the British ambassador at Madrid remonstrated, but received nothing but evasive answers or flat refusals to all his demands. He was therefore recalled by his government, and soon afterward England declared war against Spain, January, 1762.

Unable to oppose the English at sea, the Spaniards resolved to attack their ally, King Joseph of Portugal. The French and Spanish ambassadors at Lisbon presented a joint demand to the Portuguese king that he should instantly renounce his alliance with England, under penalty of incurring the resentment of their respective sovereigns, and allowing him but four days to deliberate on his answer. King Joseph at once replied by a declaration of war against France and Spain, and appealed to England for aid; whereupon a Spanish army invaded Portugal and captured Miranda, Braganza and several other towns; but eight thousand British troops under Generals John Burgoyne and Charles Lee, who afterward be-

came generals on opposite sides in the War of American Independence, were sent to the assistance of the Portuguese, along with a German force under the Count of Lippe-Schaumburg, who had already distinguished himself in the war in Germany, and who was intrusted by King Joseph with the command of the Portuguese army. The skill of the Count of Lippe-Schaumburg and of the British generals, along with the valor of their respective troops, soon forced the Spaniards to evacuate Portugal. The allied English and Portuguese armies then invaded Spain and took several towns by way of reprisals.

While the Spanish invasion of Portugal in 1762 thus failed, the French arms met with ill success in Germany; as the British and Hanoverian forces under Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick and the Marquis of Granby protected Hanover against French invasion, and even recovered most of Hesse.

The retirement of Mr. Pitt from the English Ministry was a serious misfortune for Frederick the Great, and that great warrior-king again found himself in an almost hopeless situation. As Pitt had been Frederick's firm friend, so the Earl of Bute, the new English Prime Minister, was the Prussian king's equally determined enemy. The new British Ministry, in its ardent desire for peace, now withdrew its subsidies from Frederick the Great, and even proposed to abandon his cause entirely. Fortunately for Frederick the Great, Maria Theresa was at that time so confident of recovering Silesia that she rejected the British peace propositions with disdain.

In the meantime the English conquered the principal islands that the French still retained in the West Indies—Martinique, St. Lucia, Granada and St. Vincent. A British fleet under the Earl of Albemarle and Admiral Pococke captured Havana, the capital of Cuba, in the summer of 1762, with plunder amounting to three million pounds sterling. On the other side of the globe, the city of Manilla, the capital of the Philippine Islands, was taken by a British armament under Admiral Cornish and General Draper. The Spaniards recovered the city by promising to pay a ransom of one million pounds, but they violated their engagements, and the ransom was never paid. About the same time British cruisers captured two valuable Spanish treasure galleons containing property to the amount of two million pounds sterling, August 12, 1762. While the wagons conveying the treasure taken from the Spanish vessels were passing in front of the palace the cannon in the park announced the birth of a Prince of Wales—a coincidence which vastly increased the public joy at this happy event.

France and Spain had now become heartily tired of a war which menaced their respective colonies with ruin, and the new Tory Ministry of Great Britain under the Earl of Bute was as ardently desirous of peace. So anxious was the Earl of Bute to cease hostilities that he stopped the career of colonial conquest, and consented to sacrifice several acquisitions that the British had already made, although he held on to Canada and part of Louisiana, the chief settlements on the African coasts, and the British supremacy in India. Contrary to all expectation, the British Parliament sanctioned the preliminaries of peace.

It now appeared that Frederick the Great must fall before the overwhelming power of Austria and Russia; but in January, 1762, the Empress Elizabeth of Russia, Frederick's implacable enemy, died, and was succeeded by her nephew PETER III., who ardently admired the talents and courage of Frederick, and who immediately wrote to the King of Prussia requesting a renewal of their friendship. Peter III. also ordered his generals to cease from hostilities against Prussia, and engaged to restore their conquests. In May, 1762, he made an alliance with the King of Prussia, each agreeing to aid the other with a force of fifteen thousand men.

Encouraged by the happy circumstances in which he so suddenly and unexpectedly found himself, the King of Prussia made the Austrians feel the effects of his vengeance by reëntering Silesia, defeating Daun at

Buckersdorf, and recapturing Schweidnitz with nine thousand prisoners, which again gave him possession of Silesia. Frederick next invaded Bohemia, destroyed the Austrian magazines at Prague, burned the city of Eger, and terribly ravaged the country.

His brother Prince Henry was victorious in Saxony, defeating the Austrian and German imperial armies at Freiberg. Austria consented to an armistice; and, by overrunning Franconia, Suabia and Bavaria, Frederick the Great forced the princes of those German states to withdraw their forces from the imperial army, which was thus obliged to treat for a suspension of hostilities.

The Czar Peter III. had been deposed in July, 1762, by his wicked wife, who then made herself sole sovereign of Russia, with the title of CATHARINE II. The unfortunate Peter soon afterward died in prison, supposed to have been assassinated at the instigation of Catharine. The new Empress immediately renounced the alliance with Frederick the Great, declared herself neutral with respect to the war in Germany, and recalled the Russian armies from Prussia. Sweden had already made peace with Prussia by the Treaty of Hamburg, negotiated by Frederick's sister, the wife of King Adolphus Frederick of Sweden, May 22, 1762.

On February 10, 1763, England, France, Spain and Portugal concluded treaties of peace at Paris, by which they agreed to observe neutrality with regard to the war between Austria and Prussia. The terms of the Peace of Paris were most humiliating to France. Nova Scotia, Canada and all the other French possessions in North America east of the Mississippi river, except the small islands of Miquelon and St. Pierre, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, were ceded to Great Britain; as were also the islands of Granada, Dominica, St. Vincent and Tobago, in the West Indies. France ceded Louisiana to Spain to indemnify her for her losses by the Family Compact. Spain ceded Florida to England, in exchange for Cuba and the Philippine Islands, which had been captured by the British navy. France also ceded to England the Senegal country in Africa, the French settlements made in India within the previous fourteen years, all the French conquests in Hanover, and the island of Minorca. England restored Belleisle, on the coast of France; and the island of St. Lucia, in the West Indies.

Austria and Prussia, thus left to themselves, soon agreed to a treaty of peace, which was signed at Hubertsburg, February 15, 1763; leaving the province of Silesia, for which so much blood had been shed, in the possession of Frederick the Great. Frederick promised his vote as Elector of Brandenburg for Maria Theresa's son, the Archduke Joseph II. of Austria, at the next election of Emperor of Germany, and also agreed to restore the Electorate of Saxony with all its archives to the King of Poland.

Thus England and Prussia emerged victorious from a gigantic struggle against the combined powers of Europe. Thus ended the great Seven Years' War, in which one million men perished, and which raised Prussia to a front rank, assigned North America forever to the Anglo-Saxon race, and established the British Empire in India.

By the result of this war, France, weakened and exhausted, had sunk far below the commanding position which she had formerly occupied, and her prestige was gone; while Great Britain took her place as the leading commercial and naval power of the world. The German Empire had long been a rotten structure, and the Peace of Hubertsburg made its weakness clearly manifest. About three hundred and fifty states, of which the Empire was composed, exercised the rights of sovereignty, and were almost independent of the Emperor, whose authority over the different princes of the Empire was little more than nominal. While the German Empire was thus in a decaying condition, the young Kingdom of Prussia, under its illustrious sovereign, Frederick the Great, had already taken its place as one of the leading powers of Europe. During the twenty-four years of Frederick's reign after the Seven Years' War, Prussia enjoyed the greatest prosperity.

The result of the Seven Years' War was

that Austria and Prussia became the principal powers in Continental Europe. France had lost her preëminence by uniting with the German Empire, her old enemy. By her colonial war with France and Spain, Great Britain obtained complete maritime supremacy; and she now commanded the commerce of North America and India, besides having a decided superiority in the West Indian trade.

During the Seven Years' War a question arose which led to very important discussions. France, unable to maintain commercial intercourse with her colonies, opened the trade to neutral powers. England declared this traffic illegal, and used her naval superiority in seizing neutral vessels and neutral property bound to hostile ports. The return of peace ended the dispute for the time, but it became a subject of angry controversy in every subsequent war.

During the Seven Years' War the internal condition of England improved rapidly by the extension of the funding system, which so intimately connected the pecuniary affairs of the government with those of the nation. By far the larger portion of the loans required for the expenses of the war were raised at home, so that the increase of the national debt more closely united the rulers and the people of Great Britain in the bonds of a common interest. This changed condition of affairs scarcely excited notice at the time, though it was the main source of the permanence and stability displayed by the British government when the dynasties of Continental Europe were menaced with overthrow by revolution.

SECTION VII.—THE NEW SPIRIT OF THE AGE.

INFLUENCE OF FRENCH LITERATURE.

ABOUT the middle of the eighteenth century the foundations of all existing social, political and religious institutions were terribly shaken by a class of French writers—such as Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau and the Encyclopedists—who fearlessly attacked abuses in Church and State with unanswerable arguments, and with the keenest wit and sarcasm.

These ingenious French writers, while attacking all that was vulnerable and that should have been wiped out also assailed much that was valuable and beneficent. This French literature opposed religious constitutions and ecclesiastical order, attacked the prevailing forms of government, and represented the conditions of men and forms of society in the character of antiquated abuses. While these writers first assailed real blemishes and faults, in religion and the Church, in politics and law, in civil regulations and social relations, they gradually undermined all the foundations of human society.

While these French writers sought to abolish all immunities, privileges and class prerogatives, and to give due value to freedom and personal merit, they also weakened the force of old statutes and rights and the strength of authority. While they assailed superstitious prejudices and worn-out opinions, they also confused faith and conscience, destroyed the veneration and reverence for all religion, and propagated the idea that human happiness could only exist on the ruins of existing institutions.

Such was especially the case with the writings of Voltaire, Montesquieu and Rousseau, whose ingenious writings were read by all the learned class of Europe, because of the charm of their beautiful language and powers of description. These great writers pursued different paths, but with similar results.

Voltaire, who was born in 1694, was a versatile and ingenious author, who had acquired fame in all kinds of literature. He mercilessly assailed everything customary and long established, all prevailing opinions and existing institutions, without the least

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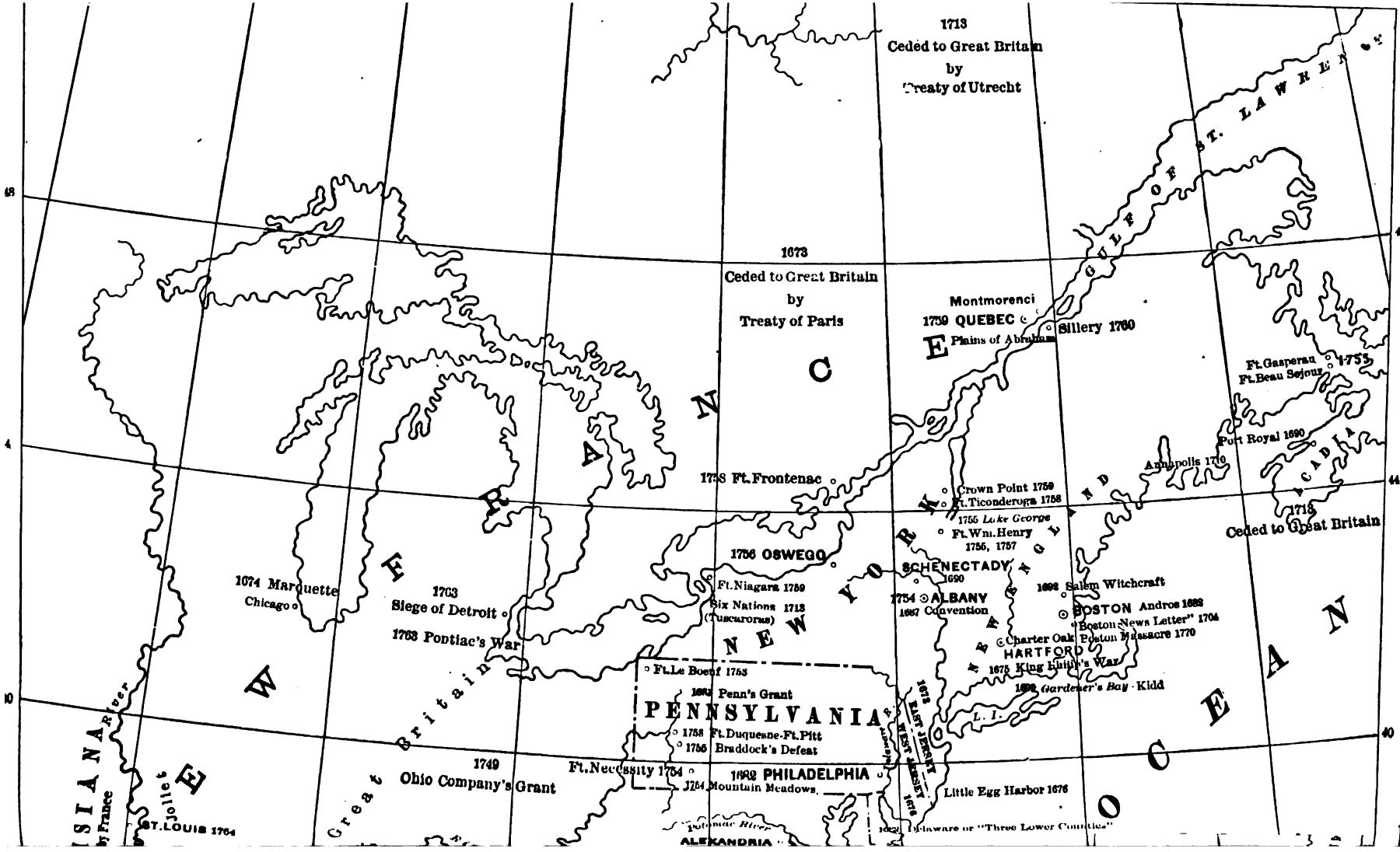
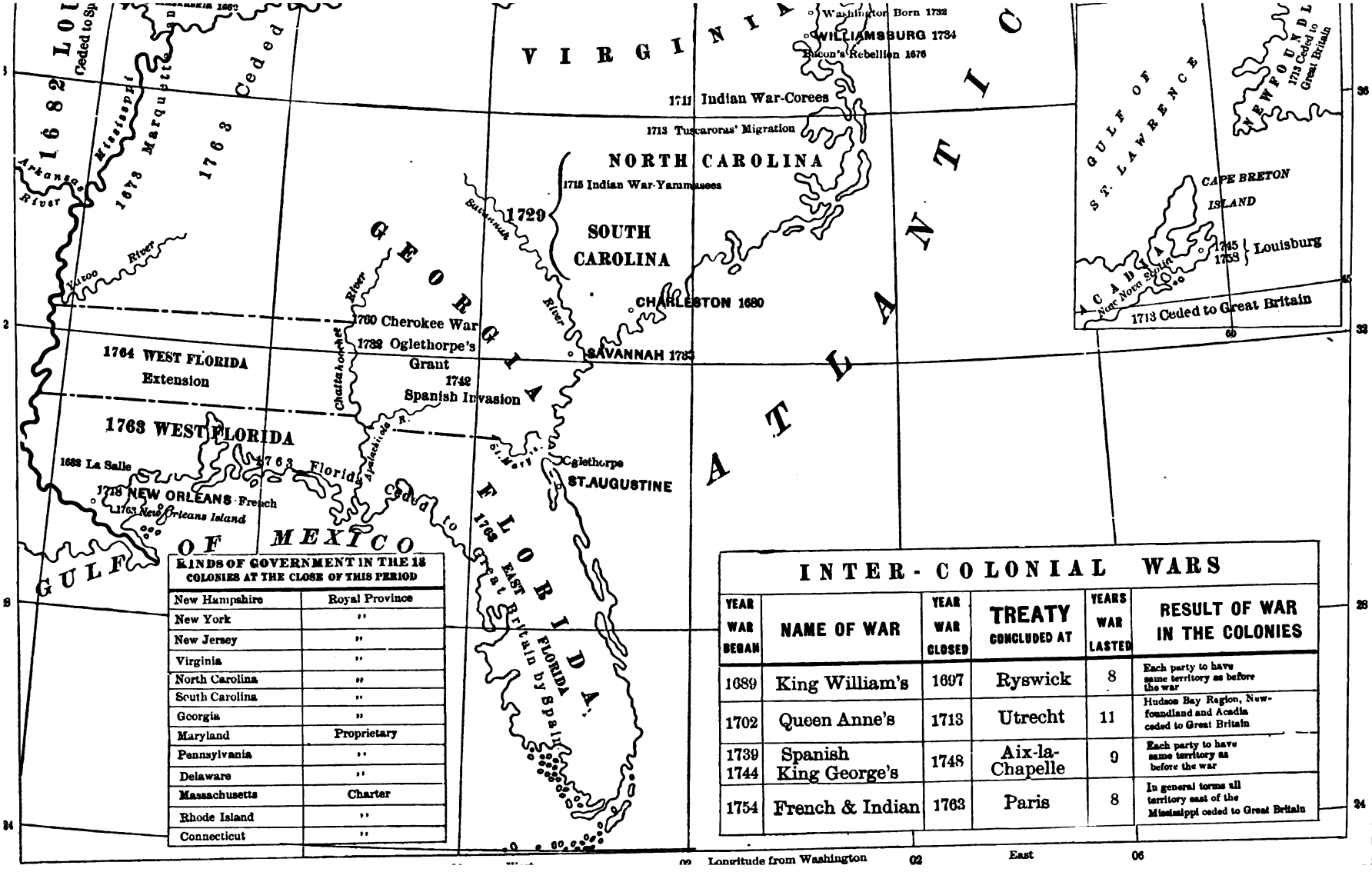


1713
Ceded to Great Britain
by
Treaty of Utrecht
1673
Ceded to Great Britain
by
Treaty of Paris
Montmorenci
1759 QUEBEC
Plains of Abraham
Sillery 1760
GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE
Ft. Gasperau
Ft. Beau Sejour
1755
Port Royal 1690
Annapolis 1710
ACADIA
1713
Ceded to Great Britain
1758 Ft. Frontenac
Crown Point 1759
Ft. Ticonderoga 1758
1755 Lake George
Ft. Wm. Henry
1755, 1757
1756 OSWEGO
SCHENECTADY
1690
1754 ALBANY
1687 Convention
1692 Salem Witchcraft
BOSTON Andros 1682
"Boston News Letter" 1704
Boston Massacre 1770
Charter Oak
HARTFORD
1675 King Philip's War
1692 Gardener's Bay - Kidd
L. I.
NEW ENGLAND
NEW YORK
Ft. Niagara 1759
Six Nations 1713
(Tuscaroras)
1674 Marquette
Chicago
1763
Siege of Detroit
1763 Pontiac's War
Great Britain
Ft. Le Boeuf 1753
1682 Penn's Grant
PENNSYLVANIA
1758 Ft. Duquesne-Ft. Pitt
1755 Braddock's Defeat
1749
Ohio Company's Grant
Ft. Necessity 1754
1682 PHILADELPHIA
1754 Mountain Meadows
1672 EAST JERSEY
WEST JERSEY
1676
Little Egg Harbor 1676
Delaware or "Three Lower Counties"
Potomac River
ALEXANDRIA
ST. LOUIS 1764
Joliet
River
NEW FRANCE
OCEAN
48
44
40

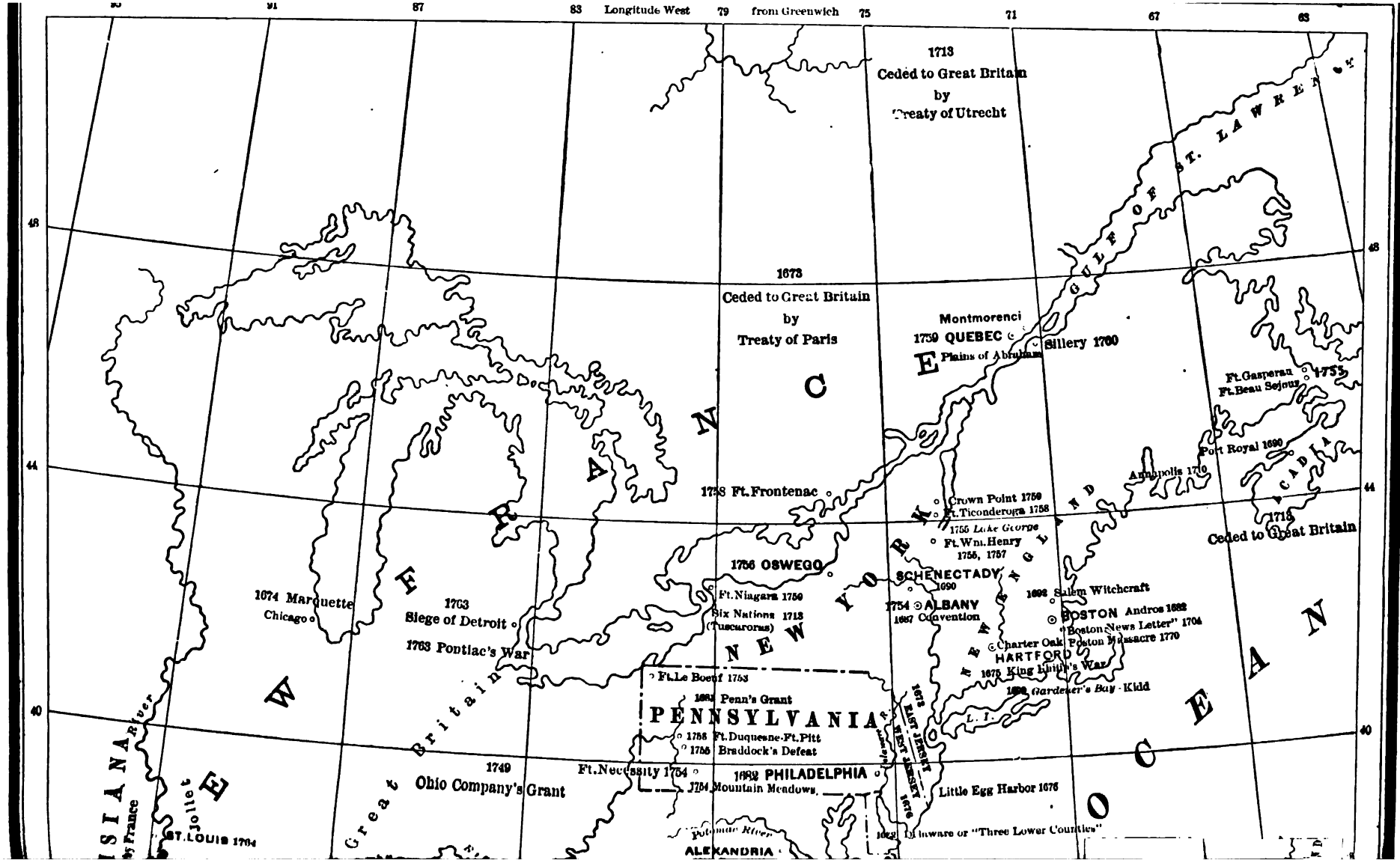


KINDS OF GOVERNMENT IN THE 13 COLONIES AT THE CLOSE OF THIS PERIOD

New Hampshire	Royal Province
New York	"
New Jersey	"
Virginia	"
North Carolina	"
South Carolina	"
Georgia	"
Maryland	Proprietary
Pennsylvania	"
Delaware	"
Massachusetts	Charter
Rhode Island	"
Connecticut	"

INTER-COLONIAL WARS

YEAR WAR BEGAN	NAME OF WAR	YEAR WAR CLOSED	TREATY CONCLUDED AT	YEARS WAR LASTED	RESULT OF WAR IN THE COLONIES
1689	King William's	1697	Ryswick	8	Each party to have same territory as before the war
1702	Queen Anne's	1713	Utrecht	11	Hudson Bay Region, Newfoundland and Acadia ceded to Great Britain
1739 1744	Spanish King George's	1748	Aix-la-Chapelle	9	Each party to have same territory as before the war
1754	French & Indian	1763	Paris	8	In general terms all territory east of the Mississippi ceded to Great Britain



Longitude West from Greenwich
83
79
75
71
67
63
91
87
48
44
40
1713
Ceded to Great Britain
by
Treaty of Utrecht
1673
Ceded to Great Britain
by
Treaty of Paris
Montmorenci
1759 QUEBEC
Plains of Abraham
Sillery 1760
GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE
Ft. Gasperau
Ft. Beau Sejour
1755
Port Royal 1690
Annapolis 1710
ACADIA
1713
Ceded to Great Britain
1758 Ft. Frontenac
Crown Point 1759
Ft. Ticonderoga 1758
1755 Lake George
Ft. Wm. Henry
1755, 1757
1756 OSWEGO
SCHENECTADY
1690
1754 ALBANY
1687 Convention
1692 Salem Witchcraft
BOSTON Andros 1682
"Boston News Letter" 1704
Charter Oak
Boston Massacre 1770
HARTFORD
1675 King Philip's War
1699 Gardener's Bay - Kidd
L. I.
NEW ENGLAND
NEW YORK
Ft. Niagara 1759
Six Nations 1713
(Tuscaroras)
1674 Marquette
Chicago
1763
Siege of Detroit
1763 Pontiac's War
Great Britain
Ft. Le Boeuf 1753
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1758 Ft. Duquesne-Ft. Pitt
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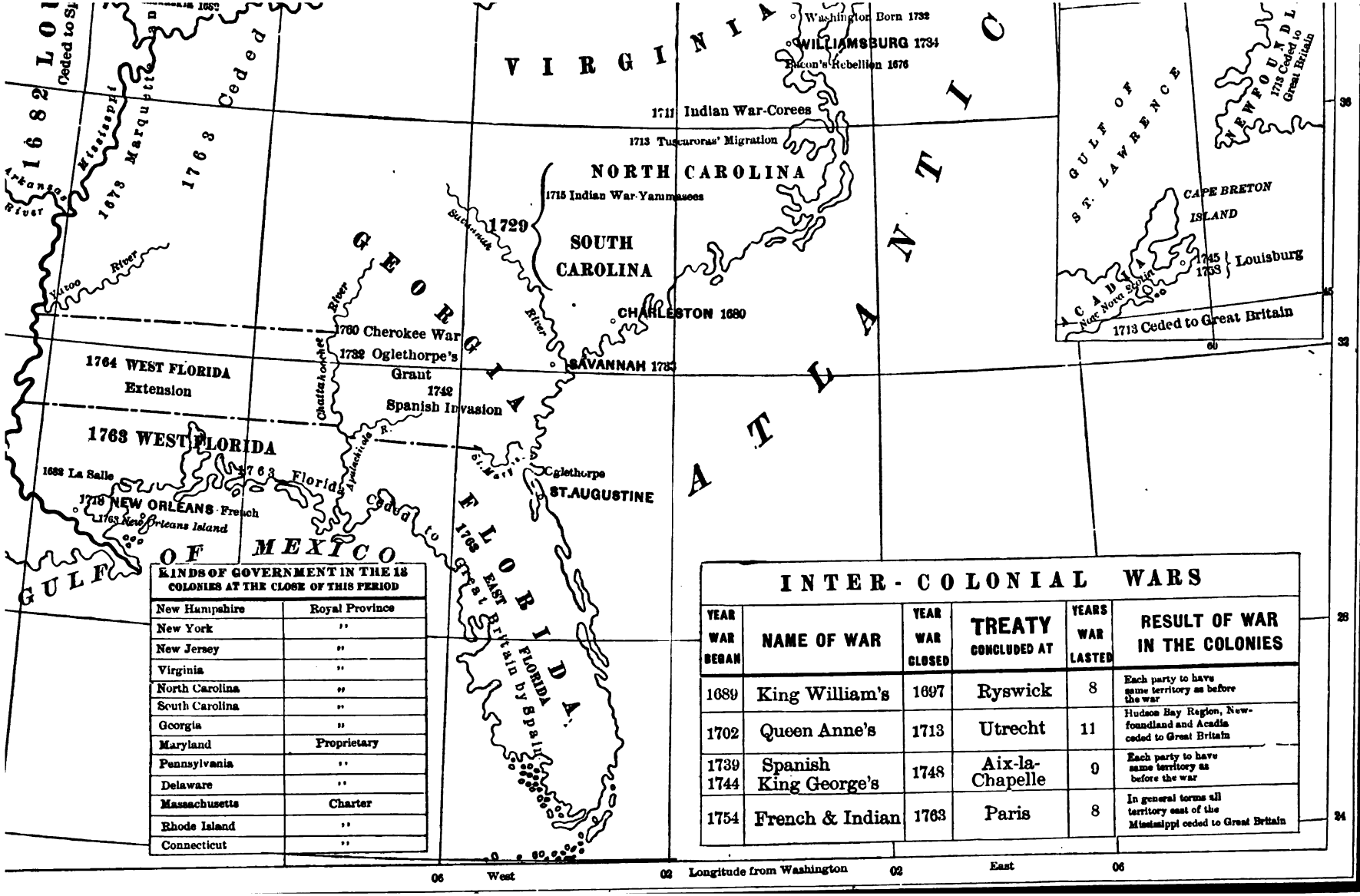
1749
Ohio Company's Grant
Ft. Necessity 1754
1682 PHILADELPHIA
1754 Mountain Meadows
1672
EAST JERSEY
WEST JERSEY
1676
Little Egg Harbor 1676
1682 Delaware or "Three Lower Counties"
Potomac River
ALEXANDRIA
Jollet
ST. LOUIS 1764
ISIANA
River
NEW FRANCE
OCEAN



KINDS OF GOVERNMENT IN THE 13 COLONIES AT THE CLOSE OF THIS PERIOD	
New Hampshire	Royal Province
New York	"
New Jersey	"
Virginia	"
North Carolina	"
South Carolina	"
Georgia	"
Maryland	Proprietary
Pennsylvania	"
Delaware	"
Massachusetts	Charter
Rhode Island	"
Connecticut	"

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concern as to what should be substituted in their stead. In his dramatic and epic poems —such as *Mohammed*, *The Henriad*, *The Maid of Orleans*—and in satires and romances, in historical and philosophical works—such as *Times of Louis XIV.*, *History of Charles XII. of Sweden*, *Essay on the Customs and Genius of Nations*—he presented his views and doubts, his thoughts and criticisms, his investigations and conclusions. His most violent assaults were hurled against religion and the Church, the priesthood and the popular belief. While destroying many prejudices, removing many superstitions, and exhibiting ecclesiastical exclusiveness in its real character, Voltaire's writings broke down religious feeling in many a heart, sowed doubt and unbelief in many a mind, along with cold, worldly wisdom, and with it selfishness, representing self-love and self-interest as the highest motives of human actions. Voltaire's writings exerted the greatest influence over the popular mind of Europe long after his death in 1778.

Montesquieu, who was born in 1689, was a more earnest writer than Voltaire, and drew attention to the faults and absurdity of existing conditions and arrangements, for the purpose of improving and reorganizing them in accordance with the spirit of the age. In his *Lettres Persannes*, "Persian Letters," Montesquieu assailed the faith of the Church and the whole form and system of government in France with the same wanton scorn as did Voltaire; and in the same manner, by his wit and irony, he exposed the customs and the social position of his contemporaries to ridicule. In his ingenious treatise, *On the Causes of the Greatness and the Decline of the Romans*, Montesquieu endeavored to prove that patriotism and self-reliance made a nation great, but that despotism brought about its destruction. Montesquieu's third great work, *Esprit des Lois*, "On the Spirit of Laws," represents the constitutional government of England as the one best adapted to mankind. His writings also exerted great influence long after his death in 1755.

Jean Jacques Rousseau, who was born at Geneva in 1712, and was the son of a watchmaker, combatted existing conditions of society by an alluring description of a precisely reverse condition of things. In his *Confessions*, in which he frankly acknowledged to the world the vicissitudes, poverty and errors of his youth, he reached, by solving a prize question on the influence of the arts and sciences upon manners, the fundamental doctrine of his whole life and efforts—the principle that all the misery and all the crimes, all the discontent and unhappiness, of mankind are due to a high degree of civilization; and that only in a state of nature, the savage state, in a condition full of innocence and simplicity, free from all the fetters imposed by civilization, education and custom, are human creatures happy and contented. The ignorant, untutored savage is therefore the happy and contented man. Civilization and culture—everything tending to raise man above the level of the brute—makes men unhappy and discontented, because it awakens desires and ambitions which cannot be gratified or realized. This principle forms the central point of all Rousseau's writings, which are characterized by sentiment and by attractive descriptions.

In his poetical and epistolary romance, *Nouvelle Heloise*, Rousseau contrasts the pleasures of a sentimental life of nature with the perverted relations of actual existence and the restraints and requirements of society. In his *Emile* he endeavored to establish a rational system of education, based on nature and parental affection, thus expiating the sin which he had himself been guilty of in allowing his own children to be taken to the foundling hospital. In this work is found *The Confession of Faith of a Savoyard Vicar*—in which Rousseau taught and recommended a religion of the heart and feelings in opposition to the prevailing doctrine of the Church—which resulted in his banishment and persecution.

In his *Contrat Social*, Rousseau advocated the equal rights of all men, and represented a perfect democracy with popular legislative

assemblies as the most desirable of all governments. His language in his works expresses his deep inward feeling, and reaches the heart because it comes from the heart.

Rousseau's writings had an incalculable influence; and every spot trodden by his foot, or where he had dwelt as a persecuted fugitive, was gazed upon reverently by the rising generation. He awakened a feeling for nature, for simplicity and for the domestic affections; but he also aroused a passionate desire for the lauded state of primitive liberty and equality, which could only be realized by the overthrow of existing institutions and conditions. He died in 1778.

Voltaire, Montesquieu and Rousseau produced so great an influence upon the opinions of all Europe for the simple reason that the fashion for everything then proceeded from Paris. The higher classes of Europe spoke only the French language and read only the French literature, and the writings of the three greatest French writers of the time excited universal attention by their agreeable form and their ingenious descriptions.

Such sovereigns as Frederick the Great of Prussia, Gustavus III. of Sweden, Charles III. of Spain and Catharine II. of Russia, as well as the great statesmen of all European nations and many influential individuals, were in personal or epistolary correspondence with Voltaire and many of his contemporaries who held his opinions.

Among these contemporaries the most famous were the mathematician and philosopher D'Alembert and the wanton poet Diderot. These two writers founded the French Encyclopedia, a clear, large-minded and unprejudiced summary of all human science, but hostile to all lofty efforts. From this work these two men and their coadjutors were called *Encyclopedists.*

The time was favorable to the ascendency of that brilliant galaxy of French philosophers who sought to supersede all previous writings by their *Encyclopedia.* Besides D'Alembert and Diderot, Condillac, Helvetius, Condorcet and Baron d'Holbach were the principal Encyclopedists. Baron d'Holbach's house was regarded as the headquarters of the atheistical philosophy.

The Encyclopedists contradicted the system of Descartes, who assumed the soul of man as the starting-point in all investigations, reasoned from a physical basis, and considered thought, sentiment and worship as mere phenomena of matter. Their speculations might have caused as little harm as those of the mediæval Schoolmen had they not been recommended by the clear and popular style in which they were written, or had they been opposed by anything better than the empty pretense of a state-religion, which served mainly as the cloak of the worst of despotisms. Not satisfied with assailing tyranny and priestcraft, the Encyclopedists also attacked the moral foundations on which the very existence of human society depends; so that everything appeared tottering on the brink of chaos, and revolt against authority soon proceeded from speculation to action, as we shall presently observe.

The French philosophical literature was eagerly read and admired in the higher circles of Europe; while it also became the fashion for the well-born youth of the various countries of Europe to spend some of their time in Paris to complete their education, so that no man of consequence could reckon upon consideration or regard unless he had been admitted into the intellectual circles of the French capital. All the monarchs and statesmen of Europe sought the favor and friendship of the French literati and philosophers.

Most of the governments in Western and Central Europe had actually outlived their vital power. Spain had been enslaved by the Inquisition ever since the suppression of the Cortes more than two centuries before. France, which had no meeting of the States-General since 1614, had become a mere autocracy, against which the parliaments of the various provinces made but a feeble and formal protest. Holland was distracted by the struggle betwen the Orange and republican factions. The Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation was stifled by un-

meaning and obsolete forms; so that there was absolute truth in Voltaire's assertion that it was "not holy, not Roman nor an empire." All the Austrian states were distracted by the well-meant but ill-considered innovations of Joseph II. Prussia, which had recently and successively been under the sway of two remarkably able sovereigns, was without a constitution by which a continuance of its greatness could be secured. Poland and Turkey were in hopeless anarchy. In all European countries the intelligence of the people was in advance of their respective governments, and the institutions which had served the requirements of the Middle Ages were inadequate to the increasing demands of modern times.

The latter half of the eighteenth century was signalized by the multiplication of clubs and secret societies in every European country, as well as by the universal diffusion of light periodical literature, instilling into the common people the skeptical philosophy which had already in the minds of the higher classes undermined all principles of civil or religious authority. The triumph of the American Revolution, which established popular government in the New World, seemed to justify the destruction of all thrones and class distinctions; though few considered the severe moral training which had prepared the Anglo-American colonists for their unique and heroic task. In the War of American Independence, the people of Europe, who were filled with the ideas and dreams of Rousseau, saw the beginning of the great struggle which was to give the human race a state of paradisiacal happiness—a struggle which was to end in the establishment of the inherent rights of humanity. The War of the American Revolution thus excited a particular interest in Europe because it was the first contest of young Freedom against the old prerogatives, forms and institutions.

The Age of Revolutions in Europe was only commenced. Before the storm passed, every European country was to experience changes, though France was the scene of the most violent transformation. The oppressions of a thousand years were certain to be avenged whenever the masses of the people should become sufficiently enlightened and fully conscious of their power.

INNOVATIONS AND REFORMS.

The new spirit of the age, emanating from Paris, was fully recognized by the sovereigns and the Prime Ministers of the different nations of Continental Europe, who inaugurated various civil, political and ecclesiastical reforms. They sought to put in practice what was advocated in speech and writing as the truth. In all these European countries zealous efforts were made to revolutionize ancient forms and institutions, laws and customs, and by new arrangements to adopt them to the spirit of the age. In the realm of religion this spirit of reform first manifested itself by proclaiming toleration in matters of religious faith, in the suppression of the Order of Jesuits, and in the abolition of the Inquisition. In France the new free religious toleration soon degenerated into the encouragement of open infidelity. This new epoch of humanity manifested itself most actively and with the best results in the affairs of law, in which efforts were made everywhere to establish, as far as possible, the equal administration of justice to all men, and to ameliorate or abolish the statutes and burdens which had been transmitted from the Middle Ages.

Serfdom was abolished in many European countries, feudal duties being done away with, and oppressive or degrading regulations being removed. New codes and ordinances concerning the administration of justice were adopted, annulling the cruel punishments of a stern and gloomy epoch, such as the rack, the wheel, etc., and granting the privileges of humanity even to the criminal. In the field of political economy new principles were established in France, and were adopted in many other European countries. These principles recognized money as the great lever of science, and therefore the great object was to raise as large a revenue as possible by labor and

by making use of natural means. This principle encouraged agriculture, mining, trade, industry and useful inventions; but it also led to the imposition of oppressive duties, to the royal right of preëmption, to indirect taxation, and to the use of paper money.

General hostility to the Roman Catholic Church and its most powerful and celebrated Order, the Jesuits, was manifested in several of the Roman Catholic countries, such as Portugal, Spain and France. Several prelates in Germany sought to place the Romish Church under the control of the civil power. One of the German prelates was Hontheim of Treves, better known as "Febronius," under which name he wrote his celebrated treatise, *On the State of the Church and the Legitimate Power of the Pontiff.*

The writers against the Jesuits complained that the Order kept the people in ignorance, that it was opposed to all means of reform and popular enlightenment, and that it was the cause of religious intolerance. The Jesuits were successively banished from such Roman Catholic countries as Portugal, Spain, France and Naples; and the Order was finally suppressed by a papal edict, though it was subsequently restored. We shall now proceed to give an account of these events and of other innovations and reforms in European countries.

The first of these innovators and reformers was Carvalho, Marquis of Pombal, the all-powerful Prime Minister of King JOSEPH of Portugal, and one of the most remarkable statesmen of his time, who justly ascribed his country's decline to the grasping ambition of the Jesuits. During the bigoted and extravagant reign of Joseph's father and predecessor, John V., A. D. 1706–1750, all the gold and diamonds of Brazil had been inadequate to save Portugal from bankruptcy. One-tenth of the Portuguese population was immured in convents, while all forms of industry were in the hands of foreigners. By a treaty with Spain, in 1750, Portugal acquired the Seven Missions of Paraguay, whose inhabitants were under the rule of the Jesuits. The treaty provided for the removal of the Jesuits to Spanish territory; but the Portuguese and Spanish commissioners who were appointed to superintend the migration were successfully resisted by the Paraguayans themselves under the direction of their Jesuit teachers.

Before the Paraguayans and the Jesuits were reduced to submission, Lisbon was overwhelmed by the great earthquake of November 1, 1755, which destroyed thirty-thousand houses and sixty thousand lives. The Jesuites attributed this dreadful calamity to Divine wrath against Carvalho, but the courageous Prime Minister was undaunted. After promptly and severely suppressing the pillage and disorder which had followed the earthquake, and after organizing the most liberal efforts for the relief of the sufferers, he proceeded with renewed vigor in the execution of his chosen policy. An attempt to murder King Joseph was attributed to the powerful family of Tavora and to the instigation of the Jesuits, and thus afforded a pretext for the expulsion of the Order from Portugal; and in September, 1759, all the Jesuits in the kingdom were shipped to the Pope's dominions. The Jesuit colleges in Portugal were thus closed, and Carvalho sought to enlighten his countrymen by the establishment of new seminaries of education and by the diffusion of printed books.

Carvalho's pervading activity was felt in all branches of the public service in Portugal. He caused the army to be reorganized by the German marshal, Count William of Lippe-Schaumburg. He encouraged agriculture and industry in order to draw the Portuguese people from dirt and indolence. He united the severity and arbitrariness of the despot to the courage and the penetrating will of the reformer, and filled all the prisons of the kingdom with those who opposed him.

King Joseph died in 1777, and was succeeded by his daughter MARIA, who was then forty-two years of age. As she was the first female sovereign of Portugal, there was some opposition to her accession; but this was easily suppressed, and her authority

was generally acknowledged. As Joseph had no son he had his daughter married to his brother, her uncle, Dom Pedro, who reigned jointly with her as PEDRO III. until his death, in 1786. During the weak reign of Maria and Pedro III. the imprisoned opponents of Carvalho were released, and they united themselves in overthrowing the all-powerful Prime Minister; after which Portugal was plunged into the same condition as before. As Queen Maria became insane in 1792, her eldest surviving son Dom Joam, or John, was intrusted with the government, which he administered in his mother's name until 1799, when he was made regent.

In Spain, during the reign of CHARLES III., A. D. 1759–1788, his famous Prime Minister, the Count d'Aranda, made efforts at reform in Church and State similar to those of Carvalho in Portugal. The Count d'Aranda's first act was the banishment of the Jesuits from Spain, A. D. 1767. He ordered all the members of the Order in Spain, five thousand in number, to be seized in one night, embarked on board ships without distinction of rank, and conveyed like criminals with great harshness to the States of the Church, to which they had declared that their obedience was due. But Pope Clement XIII. refused to receive them, and even ordered his cannon to fire on the ships which brought such unwelcome immigrants to his dominions. The property of the Jesuits in Spain was confiscated, and their colleges in that kingdom were closed. But during the latter years of the reign of Charles III. the clergy and the Inquisition again acquired great influence in Spain, and destroyed or disturbed most of the Count d'Aranda's reforms. Charles III. died in 1788, and was succeeded as King of Spain by his son CHARLES IV.

In France the Duke de Choiseul, the worthy Prime Minister of the dissolute Louis XV., was also a promoter of enlightenment and progress, but was unable to make any improvement under his voluptuous sovereign, though he also suppressed the Jesuits in France. The extensive commercial enterprises of the Jesuits had aroused numerous jealousies, and when one of their banking establishments became insolvent its French creditors obtained a judgment against the entire Order. An attempt by Damien to murder Louis XV. was made the pretext for the suppression of the Order of Jesuits throughout France, A. D. 1764, and Damien was subjected to the most painful tortures and finally torn to pieces by wild horses. The Jesuits were accused of many crimes, the chief of which was their allegiance to a foreign sovereign, the Pope.

Pope Clement XIV. (Ganganelli), who had formerly favored the Jesuits, felt himself obliged to yield to the pressure of circumstances; and, moved by the urgency of all the Roman Catholic sovereigns, he abolished the Order of Jesuits, in 1773, as a disturber of the peace of Christendom.

Maria Theresa, who had long endeavored to retain the Order in the Austrian states, was induced by her free-thinking son, afterward the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany, to consent to the dissolution of the Order. The papal edict against the Order was executed in Bavaria and other Roman Catholic states of Germany. The Jesuits were forbidden to live in community or to receive novices to propagate their Order. Thus driven from Roman Catholic countries, the Jesuits found refuge in non-Catholic lands, and were protected by Frederick the Great of Prussia and Catharine the Great of Russia.

Adam Weishaupt, professor in the University of Ingolstadt, with Knigge and others, founded the secret society of the *Illuminati*, who strove to counteract the teachings of the Jesuits; but their contest against the proscribed Order was soon checked by legal prosecutions on the part of the Bavarian government.

The island of Corsica, which belonged to the Republic of Genoa, had for many years been engaged in a war for its independence. The insurgent Corsicans, led by the gallant Pascal Paoli, defeated every attempt of the Genoese to reduce them to submission. When the Genoese became convinced that they could not restore their authority in the

revolted island they sold Corsica to France. Paoli bravely resisted the French, and, after being forced to yield, he retired to England; and Corsica came into the possession of France in 1769.

In the meantime attempts at reform were also made in the Scandinavian kingdoms. The history of Denmark had been uneventful during the reign of CHRISTIAN VI., the son and successor of Frederick IV., who died in 1730, and also during the reign of FREDERICK V., the son and successor of Christian VI., who died in 1746. Upon the death of Frederick V., in 1766, his son CHRISTIAN VII. became King of Denmark and Norway.

Christian VII. was an imbecile monarch; and, through the influence of his queen, Caroline Matilda, a princess of the royal family of England, the German physician Struensee was made Prime Minister of Denmark. Clothed with unheard-of powers, so that all orders signed by him and provided with the seal of the Cabinet possessed the same validity as if they had been signed by the king himself, Struensee undertook various reforms in the spirit of the age, thus seeking to relieve the citizen and peasant classes, to curtail the power of the nobility, and to improve the proceedings of justice.

Being a man without remarkable qualities, without strength of character, without courage or resolution, Struensee soon laid himself open in such a manner that his overthrow was easily effected. An unfavorable interpretation was put upon his confidential relations with the high-minded but imprudent queen. His use of the German language in all his official proclamations offended the national feeling of the Danes. By the lack of courage which he displayed on the occasion of a trifling tumult among the soldiers and sailors, he rendered himself contemptible and inspired his enemies with confidence.

While Struensee was at a ball the weak king's step-mother Juliana and some of her confidants entered the king's bedchamber and described the perils that menaced the state, thus inducing Christian VII. to sign a number of orders of arrest that were already prepared. Thereupon Struensee and his friend Brandt, the latter also a German, were imprisoned; and, after a most iniquitously conducted trial, Struensee was beheaded, and Brandt was deprived of his right hand. Betrayed by Struensee's weakness, Queen Caroline Matilda was separated from her royal husband; and, after three years of wretchedness, she died in Celle.

After the execution of Struensee, Juliana took the government into her own hands; and, through her favorite Guldberg, whom she caused to be made Prime Minister, all the obnoxious reforms were repealed. But when Crown Prince Frederick arrived at maturity he conducted the Danish government in his father's name, and made the gallant Bernstorf Prime Minister.

During the weak reign of ULRICA ELEANORA and her husband, FREDERICK of Hesse Cassel, A. D. 1718–1751, Sweden was governed by a selfish aristocracy, the royal power being reduced to a mere shadow; while the country was distracted by the contest between the factions of the *Hats* and the *Caps*—the former being the adherents of France, and the latter the partisans of Russia.

During the reign of the next King of Sweden, the good-natured ADOLPHUS FREDERICK, A. D. 1751–1771, who had been Bishop of Lübeck, the power of the Swedish aristocracy attained its full development. All the powers of government were exercised by the Council of State, which consisted of men destitute of honor or patriotism, who sold themselves to foreign powers and served the interests of those which paid them the most money, without any regard for the welfare of their country. The two parties of the Hats and Caps—the former in the pay of France, and the latter in that of Russia—hated and persecuted each other even to the extent of bloodshed; and the Diet was the scene of their hostile attacks. The king was without power or respect.

Adolphus Frederick, who had married a sister of Frederick the Great of Prussia, died in 1771, and was succeeded on the

throne of Sweden by his son, the brave, chivalrous, eloquent, adroit and popular GUSTAVUS III. After he had gained the support of the Swedish army and people, Gustavus III. surrounded the Council of State with troops and compelled that body to consent to a change in the government, thus effecting a bloodless revolution by which the royal power was restored in Sweden and the Council of State reduced within the bounds of a deliberative assembly, A. D. 1772, the second year of his reign. This important revolution placed the disposition of the army and navy and the appointment of civil and military officers in the hands of the king, and empowered the king to collect the votes of the Estates in the Swedish Diet before levying a tax, declaring war or concluding peace; but several years afterward he released himself from this restraint also by an arbitrary exercise of power, and made the authority of the Swedish crown absolute.

Gustavus III., who was endowed with many talents and kingly qualities, took advantage of his exalted position to introduce many reforms in the government and administration of justice, which contributed to the welfare of his subjects, and which were in accordance with the spirit of the age. But many of his acts resulted from his love of magnificence, his desire to imitate French fashions, and his attachment to the departed age of Chivalry. Great expenses were occasioned to the impoverished kingdom by the founding of an academy on the French model, the erection of theaters and opera-houses, and the revival of tournaments and running at the ring. A perverted turn was given to the king's activity by his unreasonable dreams of heroism and his chivalrous whims.

By declaring that the distillation of brandy was a royal privilege; by compelling his subjects to buy their accustomed beverage for a high price at the royal distilleries instead of allowing them to prepare it for themselves as hitherto; and by engaging in a useless land and naval war with Catharine the Great of Russia, Gustavus III. gradually lost the affections of his subjects. Finally, when he contemplated a war with Revolutionary France in the interest of King Louis XVI., a conspiracy was formed against Gustavus III., who was assassinated by being shot at a masquerade by Major Ankarstrom, a former officer of the royal guard, March 29, 1792. The murdered Gustavus III. was succeeded as King of Sweden by his son, GUSTAVUS IV.

In the meantime the spirit of reform manifested itself in Austria under Maria Theresa, whose enlightened Minister, Kaunitz, abolished many abuses and introduced many reforms, reorganizing the army, improving the administration of justice, establishing new seminaries of education, and properly arranging the economy of state. But Maria Theresa proceeded with prudence and discretion, and avoided doing violence to the national faith, the national rights, and the established usages and customs.

But her son JOSEPH II.—who had been elected Emperor of Germany upon the death of his father Francis I., in 1765—did not pursue his mother's prudent policy in carrying forward the work of reform when her death in 1780 made him the absolute sovereign of all the hereditary Austrian states. He at once undertook a series of reforms in Church and State which offended the Romish clergy and the zealous friends of the Catholic Church, which prejudiced the privileged nobility, and which outraged the national feelings of his subjects.

The Emperor Joseph II. first introduced religious toleration, thus granting to the adherents of the Lutheran, Calvinistic and Greek Churches the free exercise of their religion and equal civil and political rights with his Roman Catholic subjects. He diminished the number of monasteries and nunneries, thus dissolving seven hundred convents, and pensioning the thirty-six thousand monks and nuns from the funds. He applied the Church property thus obtained to the improvement of schools and to the erection of establishments of general utility. He limited the number of privileges and processions, and embarrassed the communi-

cation and intercourse of the Roman Catholic clergy with Rome. He also informed the Papal Nuncios that he would receive them only as political ambassadors.

Pope Pius VI. visited Vienna in the vain hope of turning the Emperor Joseph II. from the course of innovation; but, while treating the Pope with great respect, the Emperor remained firm in his purpose, and refused to hear him upon matters of public business; while the Emperor's all-powerful Minister, Kaunitz, treated His Holiness with deliberate personal neglect.

Joseph II. inaugurated the work of civil and political reform by abolishing serfdom, thus establishing personal freedom. He established equal civil and political rights by introducing an equitable system of taxation and by granting the equal protection of the laws to all classes of his subjects in his hereditary Austrian states.

Joseph II. was actuated by the noblest intentions in his innovations; but he proceeded with too great haste and without sufficient regard to prevailing conditions, customs and prejudices, and did not allow the changes which he introduced adequate time to mature. He thus gave the foes of progress the means of casting suspicion upon his actions and efforts, and of thus depriving of all their fruits the measures which he had designated for the welfare and happiness of his subjects in his hereditary Austrian dominions.

The restless disposition of Joseph II. led him to make long and frequent journeys; during which he visited Rome, Paris, St. Petersburg, the Crimea, Holland and his own provinces of the Austrian Netherlands.

So completely had the German Empire lost all respect as a political body that it was unrepresented at the peace negotiations at Hubertsburg, and the sentence of outlawry pronounced against Frederick the Great was received with scorn and ridicule. The Emperor's power was reduced to a mere shadow and his revenue to several thousand florins. Almost three hundred and fifty princes and states, with the most varied powers and the most unequal extent of territory, ruled in Germany with all the powers of sovereignty, leaving nothing to the Emperor but the confirmation of mutual compacts, promotions, declarations of majority, and the determination of precedence.

In time of war the German princes sometimes espoused the cause of the enemies of Germany. Thus Bavaria was always the ally of France. The Imperial Diet, which had assembled at Ratisbon for a long time, and which consisted of representatives of the German princes and the imperial cities, had lost all respect, because it was too much occupied with speeches and debates to arrive at any decision, or was unable to enforce any decision which it did reach. In the Diet obsolete rights were contended for with a little-minded jealousy. Rank, title, and the right of suffrage, were guarded with the most jealous care; and all time and energy were devoted to doctrinal disputes without object; while foreign nations made Germany the scene of their wars, and treated the imbecile body-politic with contempt.

The German courts of justice were in as melancholy a condition as was the Imperial Diet. The Imperial Chamber of Wetzlar, in which the complaints of Estates of the Empire against each other or against their vassals were examined, proceeded so tediously that cases were frequently pending for years before judgment was pronounced: while the suitors either died or fell into poverty, and the records increased to an incalculable extent. The judges mainly depended upon fees for their remuneration, and thus the administration of justice was exposed to corruption. An effort of the Emperor Joseph II. to improve and expedite the progress of justice in the Imperial Chamber was frustrated by the selfishness of the interested parties. Concerning the inferior tribunals, the great diversity in the laws, the number of small states, and the unlimited power of the judges and officials, made it very difficult for the humble man to obtain justice. The weak were defenselessly exposed to all the injustice of the crafty and the strong. "It was the golden age of jurists and advocates."

While the German Empire was thus in a rapidly decaying condition, the young and vigorous Kingdom of Prussia, under the sagacious and energetic Frederick the Great, was gradually rising to greater power and prosperity. Frederick sought to heal the wounds which the Seven Years' War had inflicted upon his kingdom, to the best of his ability, by supporting the decayed landed proprietors and the manufacturers in the war-wasted province of Silesia and the Mark with money, by remitting their taxes for several years, and by ameliorating the condition of the peasants. He encouraged agriculture and mining, colonized the untilled lands of his dominions, and fostered industry, trade and commerce with the greatest care. By these means Prussia became prosperous, and Frederick the Great was enabled to increase his taxes without oppressing his subjects with heavy burdens. His own frugality, the simplicity of his court, and the well regulated economy of the state, caused the public treasury to be better replenished every year.

Frederick did not adopt rigorous and oppressive measures until a later period. One of these was his management of the customs and the excise. He made the sale of coffee, tobacco, salt, etc., a royal monopoly, and forbade free trade in these commodities. In order to prevent any clandestine traffic, he appointed a number of French excise officers, who by their insolence made the otherwise oppressive regulation wholly detestable.

Frederick devoted less attention to the Church and education. The situation of teacher in a small place was frequently a retiring-post for a discharged petty officer, while the higher institutions of learning were under the management of Frenchmen. The free-thinking king took little interest in religion or the Church, but he established the universal admission of the principle of Christian toleration in his kingdom.

Frederick the Great devoted much attention to the affairs of justice. He abolished the rack and the horrible and degrading punishments of the Middle Ages, simplified the course of justice and improved the laws. He prepared the new book of laws that was introduced into Prussia under his successor. But what was more important than all these laws and arrangements was the fact that Frederick inspected everything himself, that during his journeys he narrowly inquired after the administration of justice and the management of affairs, and that he dismissed the negligent and punished the dishonest. By his assiduous activity from early morn until late at night, Frederick acquired a comprehensive knowledge of all the affairs of his kingdom; and his commanding character, which did not scruple at corporeal punishment, terrified the negligent and the unjust.

One peculiarity of Frederick the Great has frequently and justly been censured—his love for what was foreign, his contempt for the things of his own country. He not only preferred the French literature and language to the German, writing his own letters and works in French; but he admired and imitated everything French. Hundreds of French adventurers found honor and support in Prussia; and this admiration of foreigners became the fashion in other German courts, so that hare-brained Frenchmen swarmed in every part of Germany. Parisian barbers, dancing-masters and boasters were frequently preferred to the most deserving native Germans in the appointment to the higher offices of the court and the government.

In his old age Frederick the Great was involved in another war with Austria. At the end of the year 1777 the princely race of Wittelsbach, which had ruled Bavaria for six centuries, became extinct with the death of the Elector Maximilian Joseph; whereupon Charles Theodore of the Palatinate became Elector of Bavaria by inheritance. Charles Theodore was a licentious, profligate and bigoted prince. But, in spite of his many faults and vices, he is still remembered with affection by the people of the Palatinate. His love of art is fully attested by his many remarkable structures in Mannheim, Heidelberg and Schwetzingen.

As Charles Theodore had no legitimate offspring nor any love for Bavaria, he was easily persuaded by the Emperor Joseph II. to agree to a treaty in which he acknowledged the validity of the claims of the imperial House of Hapsburg to Lower Bavaria, the Upper Palatinate and the territory of Mindelheim, and expressed his willingness to relinquish these territories in exchange for certain advantages being assured to his illegitimate children.

Frederick the Great, alarmed at this aggrandizement of Austria, endeavored to interfere with the project of Joseph II. and Charles Theodore by inducing the future heir of Bavaria and the Palatinate, Duke Charles of Zweibrucken, to protest against the treaty in the Imperial Diet; and when this protest produced no effect the King of Prussia sent an army into Bohemia to prevent the contemplated aggrandizement of Austria, thus giving rise to the brief *War of the Bavarian Succession*, A. D. 1778–1779—a contest which was carried on more with the pen than with the sword, as both parties sought to prove themselves in the right by means of learned treatises. As all the German states were averse to a general European war, Russia under Catharine the Great and France under Louis XVI. offered their mediation in the contest, and persuaded Maria Theresa to consent to the Peace of Teschen, by which the Electoral House of the Palatinate was secured in the possession of Bavaria, while Innviertel and Braunau were secured to Austria, and the succession of the Margravate of Anspach and Bayreuth to the King of Prussia.

The Emperor Joseph II. was irritated at the treaty of Teschen; and, after he had become sovereign of the hereditary Austrian territories by the death of his mother Maria Theresa, November 29, 1780, he made another effort to obtain Bavaria by offering the Austrian Netherlands to the Elector Charles Theodore in exchange. Charles Theodore allowed himself to be persuaded to accept this arrangement, A. D. 1785; but Frederick the Great again interfered and frustrated the ambitious project of the Emperor Joseph II., and secured Bavaria to the Electoral House of the Palatinate by the formation of an alliance of German princes. This princely league increased the power and influence of the King of Prussia in the same proportion that it thoroughly undermined the Emperor's authority. Each German prince aimed at independent and unlimited power; and each formed a miniature court, modeled after the court of Versailles in magnificence and profusion, in morals and fashions, and in language, literature and art.

Frederick the Great did not live long after the formation of this princely alliance. He died at Potsdam, August 17, 1786, and was succeeded as King of Prussia by his nephew, the weak FREDERICK WILLIAM II. Frederick the Great left to his successor a well-regulated kingdom containing a population of six millions, a powerful and strictly-disciplined army, and a well-provided treasury; but the greatest treasure which he left was the memory of his heroic and glorious deeds, which will long continue to animate his countrymen with awakening power and soul-stirring influence.

Notwithstanding the fact that the political division of Germany was prejudicial to the external power and greatness of the Empire, it promoted the development of the arts and sciences in the same degree. Many of the German princes patronized and encouraged literature and intellectual culture. They endeavored to attract distinguished men to their capitals and to their universities, and by conferring rewards and distinctions they encouraged poets and scholars to undertake great literary works.

Thus in the last half of the eighteenth century, when Germany had entirely lost her political importance and her military prestige, German literature, poetry, science and spiritual life, received a mighty impulse, and produced a degree of refinement almost unparalleled in modern times. Poetry especially flourished; and the names of Goethe and Schiller, of Klopstock and Lessing, of Herder and Wieland, shed immortal luster upon German poetry. During

this period also flourished Winckelmann, the great German archæologist. Lavater, the eminent Swiss religious philosopher, was the leader of the Supernaturalists. Nicolai, the Berlin bookseller and author, was the founder of the Rationalists, who denied all divine revelation and supernaturalism, the belief in which they characterized as superstition. Immanuel Kant, of Königsburg, the greatest of German philosophers and metaphysicians, also adorned this age.

In 1783 the Emperor Joseph II. ordered the Dutch to withdraw their garrisons from the barrier towns in the Austrian Netherlands, and caused the fortresses to be demolished. The armed intervention of France prevented war between Austria and Holland, and secured the Treaty of Fontainebleau, November 10, 1785.

The sentiments of republican and democratic freedom which the War of American Independence had excited throughout Europe produced their first effects in Holland, where the republican or patriotic party had gained strength during the long minority of the Stadtholder William V. The government of Holland under the House of Orange was entirely devoted to England after the War of American Independence; and, while the republican party had secured the alliance of France, the Orange party was supported by England and Prussia in upholding the hereditary nature of the dignities of Stadtholder, High Admiral and Captain-General, which the republican party desired to make elective in order to weaken the House of Orange.

Finally the republican party in Holland drove the Stadtholder from the fortress of the Hague, treated his wife like a prisoner when she attempted to enter the city, and drove Duke Ernest of Brunswick from the country, while armed mobs committed violence in some of the towns. In 1787 King Frederick William II. of Prussia, the brother of the Stadtholder's wife, marched an army of thirty thousand men into Holland, thus suppressing the democratic insurrection and restoring the Stadtholder's authority. Some of the extreme republicans of Holland, who were excepted from the general amnesty, found a congenial field in France for their activity. Under the restored Stadtholder, Holland renounced her alliance with France and concluded a *Triple Alliance* with England and Prussia by the Treaty of Loo, in June, 1788.

The attempt of Joseph II. to introduce his reforms into the Austrian Netherlands, his establishment of a high court of justice at Brussels, and his attempt to reorganize the University of Louvain, which was under the control of the Roman Catholic clergy, caused disturbances that eventually ended in a general rebellion in those provinces. The Emperor's efforts to make the Netherlanders prosperous in spite of themselves were thus not crowned with success. The suppression of convents alarmed their bigotry, and the abrogation of their old charters aroused their patriotism. A secret society in opposition to the Emperor's reforms was formed in 1787, and soon numbered seventy thousand members. Encouraged by the outbreak of the French Revolution, in 1789, they convened at Breda and demanded the restoration of their old rights, appealing "to God and their swords" in case of the Emperor's refusal. The Austrian regency was driven from the Netherlands, and the Austrian garrisons were expelled from Ghent and from all Flanders. In January, 1790, the Belgian National Congress at Brussels issued a Declaration of Independence and an Act of Union of the Belgian United Provinces.

This rebellion in the Austrian Netherlands, which had been instigated by the nobility and the clergy, and similar disturbances in Hungary about the same time, broke the heart of the Emperor Joseph II. and hastened his death, which occurred February 20, 1790; his health having been impaired during his campaigns against the Turks in the unhealthy regions of the Lower Danube, when he was the ally of the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia, as we shall presently see.

The indefatigable efforts of Joseph II., the activity with which he superintended

everything himself, the freedom with which he admitted all classes of his subjects to his presence, and his abolition of official tyranny, were not appreciated. His views were misunderstood and misrepresented, his noblest plans were frustrated, and his name was culumniated; but posterity, which can appreciate his aims and efforts more justly, will always bless his memory.

Joseph II. was succeeded in the sovereignty of the hereditary Austrian territories, and on the imperial throne of Germany, by his brother LEOPOLD II., who had ruled the Grand Duchy of Tuscany for twenty-five years with the same liberality and with greater moderation than Joseph II. Leopold II. restored tranquillity and order in the Austrian Netherlands and in Hungary by restoring the old usages and abolishing the obnoxious reforms of his well-meaning predecessor, and by increasing the liberties of the Netherlands; while his armies also overawed and defeated the rebels, and thus put an end to the Belgian Republic after it had existed less than a year. Leopold II. died early in 1792, after a reign of two years, while preparing to put down the French Revolution, and was succeeded as sovereign of the Austrian states, and as Emperor of Germany, by his son FRANCIS II.

SECTION VIII.—RUSSIA UNDER CATHARINE THE GREAT.

WHILE France, under her profligate monarch, Louis XV., was declining in national power and greatness, and while Prussia, under the illustrious Frederick the Great, had attained a leading position among the great powers of the earth, Russia, under her great Empress, CATHARINE II., exercised a preponderant influence in Eastern Europe, and was beginning to feel the new spirit of the age. The long reign of Catharine II., her conspiracies with Austria and Prussia in the three partitions of Poland, and her wars with the Ottoman Empire, are the prominent features in the history of Eastern Europe during the last four decades of the eighteenth century.

Catharine II.—also called CATHARINE THE GREAT—reigned thirty-four years, A. D. 1762–1796. She had become Empress in July, 1762, by uniting with the five brothers Orloff in the conspiracy in which her husband and predecessor Peter III. was deposed.

The unfortunate Peter III. was refused the permission to retire to his duchy of Holstein-Gottorp, which he humbly sought, and was strangled in prison by Alexis Orloff, with the consent of the Empress. Ivan VI.—who had been deposed by the Empress Elizabeth in 1741, and kept for twenty-three years in a loathsome captivity, which had reduced him to idiocy—was also murdered by order of Catharine the Great, who artfully engaged her former lover Mirowitch in an effort to release him. The conspiracy was made a pretext for the death of both; and the Czarina's share in the murderous plot was concealed by the execution of Mirowitch, while he eagerly and confidently expected the pardon which the Empress had promised him.

In her private character the Empress was dissolute and immoral. She left the government of her Empire to her favorites; and the court of St. Petersburg was as much distinguished for its luxury, immorality and debauchery as was that of Versailles. Her first paramour was Alexis Orloff, to whom she surrendered her person, as well as the government of her Empire. After him she had a succession of other paramours, all of whom she loaded with wealth and honors; and the situation of the favored lover of the Empress was at length disposed of as a court office. The one who enjoyed the favor of the Empress longest was Potemkin the Taurian, who for sixteen years con-

ducted the affairs of the Russian government and the plans of conquest, living all that time in a fabulous state of magnificence, and displaying in a truly remarkable manner the wealth which his liberal imperial mistress showered upon him. The Empress regarded the man who had a spirit of enterprise so daring that he spared neither money nor life as the man capable of bestowing proper glory and renown upon her reign.

Catharine the Great was a masculine woman, with a susceptible mind. Her talents for government were only equaled by her crimes, and the wonderful success of her reign would fully justify her title of *the Great* if her personal errors could be forgotten. She effected many of the well-meant reforms which had contributed to her husband's overthrow. She caused the funds of Church-sinecures to be applied to secular uses, the army and the civil service to be reorganized to the highest efficiency, and the whole Empire to be divided into its present *governments* for convenience of administration. She also greatly improved the administration of justice.

CATHARINE THE GREAT OF RUSSIA.

Catharine the Great maintained a correspondence with Voltaire and other French writers of the same sentiments, and she invited Diderot to St. Petersburg. She encouraged science and art, and founded schools and academies. Her efforts for the promotion of Russian civilization were loudly applauded by the French authors.

The two great objects of Catharine's ambition were the tottering Republic of Poland and the declining Ottoman Empire, and her whole political policy was one of aggression and territorial aggrandizement. The Republic of Poland was becoming weaker and weaker every day. The decline of this nation was attributable to its internal dissensions, in consequence of its elective constitution. About two-thirds of the Polish people were serfs, whose ignorance and squalid misery kept them in a condition but little above that of the brute creation. They were incapable of possessing property, and thousands died of starvation in case of the failure of a crop. The remaining third of the Polish population consisted of the three orders of nobility, with clergy, lawyers, citizens and Jews.

The higher nobles numbered only one hundred and twenty, four or five of whom were the leaders of powerful factions. The middle class of nobles consisted of about twenty-five thousand persons. The lower nobility numbered over a million, and were an idle, ignorant, and many of them a beggarly class of people, who were shut out by their pride of birth from the thrift and comfort which they might have acquired by industry; while the most insignificant of them could nullify the proceedings of the Polish Diet by his single veto.

The citizens consisted mainly of about fifty thousand artisans, who were scattered in wretched villages, and were almost as completely subject to the oppressions of the nobles as were the serfs themselves. Only Jews, artisans and clergy were taxed; and the Polish finances were entirely without a system. The Ministers, or heads of the various departments of the government, were responsible to the Diet, not to the king.

All these elements of weakness were aggravated by the conduct of the nobles, who clung to their old constitutional privilege of forming armed confederations against their king whenever his policy did not meet their approval. For more than a century the tendency to dissolution had been so evident that King John Casimir, the last of the Polish Vasas, clearly predicted, as early as 1661, that Poland would eventually be partitioned by the Houses of Romanoff, Hapsburg and Hohenzollern—a prediction that was now soon to be fulfilled.

Thus the Kingdom, or "Republic," of Poland had long been a rotten structure, and was preserved only by the disagreements and jealousies of its neighbors, not by its own strength. Its elective constitution was another great misfortune; as every election of king was the scene of the greatest contention and the most violent proceedings, and bribery and corruption became predominant. As the nobles thus possessed privileges that were incompatible with any well-organized state policy, and as the king was utterly powerless, there was no hope for the unhappy country.

The Polish Diet, which gave laws to the nation, became proverbial for the vehement party contests that rendered every debate fruitless; while the whole political power of the country was in the hands of the armed confederation of nobles. A kingdom in which only the noble possessed political liberty or the privilege of bearing arms, and who, relying upon his sword, despised the law; in which enslaved peasants were held in a condition of abject serfdom; in which commerce was in the hands of sordid and avaricious Jews, was likely to excite the cupidity of ambitious and unscrupulous neighbors.

The death of Frederick Augustus II., in 1763, was followed by an interregnum of some months, which left Poland in that condition of anarchy to which it was at all times rendered liable by its miserable constitution; and the kingdom again became a prey to the old elective tempests. One of the factions which fought for the disposal of

NOBLEMAN—OFFICER (17TH CENTURY).

OFFICER AND MUSQUETEER OF THE FRENCH GUARD.

THE GREAT ELECTOR (1657).

GEORGE DERFLINGER.

END OF 17TH CENTURY.

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TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

the Polish crown was supported by Russia, while the other faction was backed by France. With the alliance of Frederick the Great of Prussia, the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia secured the election of one of her old lovers, STANISLAS PONIATOWSKI, who was chosen King of Poland by the Polish nobles on the plain of Wola amid the clash of Russian sabers, September 4, 1764.

King Stanislas Poniatowski was a connoisseur and patron of art and literature, and was an amiable and accomplished gentleman, but lacked strength of character or power of will. Weak and without any consistency of character, he was a mere puppet in the hands of the powerful. His weak and pliable character promised to make him a useful instrument of the interests of Russia's great Empress. The Russian ambassador at Warsaw possessed greater power than the Polish king; and, for the purpose of preventing the possibility of Poland's release from this condition of disorder and weakness, Catharine the Great of Russia and Frederick the Great of Prussia resolved to maintain the old Polish constitution unaltered.

It was about this time that the *Dissidents*, as all Polish Protestants and adherents of the Greek Church were called, petitioned the Polish Diet for the restoration of the civil and religious privileges of which they had been deprived by the Diets of 1717 and 1733. The Dissidents were supported in their reasonable demands by the Empress of Russia and the King of Prussia, and by most of the Protestant governments of Europe. As the demand of the Czarina of Russia had been followed by the advance of a Russian army into Poland, the Poles perceived the motives of her intervention; and, in one impulse of national independence, the Roman Catholic majority in the Polish Diet of 1765, through the influence of the Polish clergy, rejected the reasonable petition of the Dissidents, and renewed all the intolerant edicts against heretics. King Stanislas Poniatowski was forced to submit. The Russian Empress, exasperated at his evasion of her commands, secured Prince Radzivil, the leading opponent of the king, and formerly the enemy of all Russian influence in Poland, as her instrument of revenge.

Through the efforts of Prince Radzivil, with a lavish distribution of Russian gold among the Polish nobles, one hundred and seventy-eight distinct confederations were formed among the nobles; and these confederations were eventually united into one of eighty thousand members, known as the *Confederation of Radovi*, which assumed dictatorial powers in accordance with custom, July 23, 1767. The business of this confederation was delegated to two committees, one of sixty and the other of fourteen members, the latter having the power to pass resolutions of binding force upon the Polish nation by a majority of votes. Thus eight men were intrusted with the fate of Poland.

The Confederation of Radovi called upon Russia for aid, and extorted religious toleration, the restoration of the churches which they had formerly possessed, and equal civil and political rights, from the Diet with its Catholic majority. Surrounded by Russian troops, the members of the Polish Diet, with the portrait of the Russian Empress above their heads, signed the act of toleration, which was greeted by all Europe, and which was the sign of Poland's weakness. In order that this weakness might remain permanent, it was decided that no change should be made in the existing Polish constitution without the consent of the Russian Empress.

These proceedings offended the national feeling of the Polish patriots, and excited the religious animosity of the Catholic bigots. As the two committees of the Confederation of Radovi were soon found to be under the absolute control of Prince Repnin, the Russian ambassador at Warsaw, who arranged with King Stanislas Poniatowski, the Primate of Poland, the Grand Treasurer and Prince Radzivil all the business brought before them, the conviction grew strong that the Polish king had sold himself and his

kingdom to Russia, and that his recent semblance of independent action had only formed part of a plot to deceive his subjects.

At the instigation of France, the Polish Catholics formed the *Confederation of Bar*, in opposition to that of Radovi, for the purpose of again depriving the Dissidents of their civil and religious rights, liberating Poland from Russian supremacy, and dethroning King Stanislas Poniatowski, February 28, 1768. France supported this confederation with money and officers. A bloody civil war ensued between the two confederations. With the assistance of a Russian army, the Confederation of Radovi came forth triumphant. Bar and Cracow, the strongholds of the Bar Confederates, were carried by assault by the Russian general Suwarrow, who thus began his long and celebrated military career. The defeated forces fled into the Turkish territories, closely pursued by the victorious Russians, who continued murdering, plundering and devastating even on neutral soil.

Like Poland, Turkey was in a most deplorable state of anarchy and weakness. Sultan Mahmoud I. had died in 1754, and had been succeeded on the Turkish throne by his brother OTHMAN III., who died in 1757, and was succeeded by his nephew MUSTAPHA III., who was still Sultan while this civil war in Poland was raging.

The violation of Turkish territory by the Russians, in the pursuit of the defeated and retreating Poles, caused the Ottoman Porte to declare war against Russia, at the instigation of the French ambassador at Constantinople, December 4, 1768; and for six years, A. D. 1768–1774, a sanguinary land and naval war raged between the Turks and the Russians. The Tartars of the Crimea overran the southern provinces of Russia and perpetrated frightful devastations. The Russians under Prince Alexander Galitzin met with little success in the campaign on the Dniester in 1769.

Prince Galitzin crossed the Dniester at various times, but was always repulsed by the Turks, who also failed in their efforts to force a passage of that river. On their last attempt, in September, 1769, twelve thousand men had crossed it, when a sudden flood broke down the bridge and cut off the Turkish retreat. This Turkish detachment was cut to pieces by the Russians, whereupon the Turks were seized with a panic and were thus forced to abandon their camp and the fortress of Kotzim. The Russians took possession of both without the loss of a life, and soon afterward they marched into the interior of Moldavia and Wallachia.

General Romanzoff, who assumed the command of the Russian army in 1770, achieved two great victories, one near the Pruth, July 18, 1770, and the other near the Kukuli, August 1, 1770, thus effecting the conquest of the Turkish tributary principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia; while another Russian army under Count Panin assailed the strong fortress of Bender, which was defended by a formidable Turkish garrison, but was taken by storm, September 26, 1770, when most of the garrison were massacred by the victorious Russians.

In the meantime a Russian fleet under Alexis Orloff, the paramour of the Czarina Catharine the Great, after sailing from the Baltic to the Mediterranean, engaged the Turkish fleet under the Capitan Pasha off the island of Scio, July 5, 1770. The ships of the Russian Admiral Spiritoff and the Turkish admiral, the Capitan Pasha, caught fire and were blown to atoms. Darkness put an end to the conflict; and the Turkish fleet imprudently sailed to the narrow bay of Chismé, pursued by the Russians, who burned the entire Turkish fleet—a catastrophe which created the wildest consternation in Constantinople. Had the Russian fleets, under Alexis Orloff, Admiral Spiritoff and the Englishman Rear-Admiral Elphinstone, made a descent on the Turkish capital in the midst of this panic they might have taken the city; but the Russian admirals refused to follow the Englishman's advice.

One of the vast projects of the Empress Catharine the Great was the erection of a new Greek Empire on the ruins of the Ottoman, but her premature efforts for the

liberation of the Greeks involved those people in misfortune. As soon as the Czarina's other schemes of conquest demanded the withdrawal of her fleets from the Mediterranean, the insurgent Greeks were exposed to the vengeance of the Turks, who ravaged the Morea with fire and sword, filling whole districts with ruins and corpses.

In 1771 the war on the Danube was prosecuted in a feeble manner by the Russian army commanded by Prince Dolgoruki, who forced the lines at Perekop, defended by an army of sixty thousand Turks and Crim Tartars, under the command of the Khan of the Crimea. After surmounting this formidable barrier, Prince Dolgoruki took possession of the Crimea and the island of Taman, and received the surname of *Crimski* from the Empress Catharine the Great as a reward for his brilliant achievements. Certain pretended deputies from the Crim Tartars signed an act renouncing the dominion of the Turks and placing themselves under the protection of Russia's great Empress, A. D. 1772.

But these splendid conquests exhausted Russia, which was obliged frequently to recruit her armies, which were constantly thinned by battles, fatigue and disease; so that the Russian Empress soon perceived the necessity of peace. The Russians were now attacked by an enemy more terrible than the Turks. A frightful pestilence passed from the Russian army into the interior of the Russian Empire, penetrating as far as Moscow, where one hundred thousand people fell victims to its terrible ravages during the year 1771 alone.

To add to the embarrassments of the Empress Catharine the Great, the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany and Frederick the Great of Prussia, who had undertaken to mediate between the Czarina and the Sultan, disdainfully rejected the terms of peace proposed by Catharine the Great, and earnestly opposed her schemes for the erection of Moldavia, Wallachia and the Crimea into states independent of the Ottoman Porte, while they also refused to permit the Russians to cross the Danube and invade Bulgaria. The court of Vienna even threatened to make common cause with the Sultan of Turkey, to force the Russian Empress to restore her conquests, and to place matters between Russia and Turkey on the footing in which they had been placed by the Treaty of Belgrade in 1739. Austria and Turkey signed a convention to that effect at Constantinople, July 6, 1771; but this Austro-Turkish convention was not ratified, on account of future developments.

In the meantime the civil war in Poland was raging with increased fury, and King Stanislas Poniatowski narrowly escaped from some conspirators who intended to carry him off from Warsaw. Poland was suffering all the miseries of barbarous warfare. On all sides the eye beheld plains deluged with blood, villages reduced to ashes, and weeping inhabitants. The weakness of Poland exposed her to the cupidity of her three powerful neighbors.

Fearing that both Poland and Turkey would be absorbed by Russia, Austria and Prussia resolved to unite in preserving the balance of power, or at least in obtaining a share of the spoils. The mediation of Austria and Prussia in the war between Russia and Turkey brought about the seizure of part of the Polish territory by Austria, Prussia and Russia. The Emperor Joseph II. had several interviews with Frederick the Great to concert plans for checking Russian aggrandizement, especially as he was displeased with the conditions on which the Empress Catharine the Great proposed to make peace with Turkey.

In the summer of 1770 Austrian troops marched into the Polish territories, occupying the county of Zip and overrunning Gallicia even beyond Cracow; and the court of Vienna declared these territories annexed to Hungary on the ground that they had formerly constituted a part of that kingdom, and placed them under Austrian governors. In the anarchy and terror which prevailed in Poland the peasantry ceased from tilling the soil and were herded together in towns, where they soon suffered from famine, and afterward from pestilence also. Frederick

the Great of Prussia, under pretense of forming a cordon of defense against the pestilence, sent an army into Polish Prussia.

As the Empress Catharine the Great was still engaged in her war with the Turks, she was unable to resist the Austrian and Prussian occupation of Polish territory; and she declared to Prince Henry of Prussia, who was then at St. Petersburg, that if Austria seized any portion of Poland the other neighbors were entitled to do the same. Prince Henry communicated this overture to his brother, King Frederick the Great, who resolved to act on this new idea, as he foresaw that it would be a proper means for indemnifying Russia, satisfying Austria, and increasing his own dominions by connecting his detached territories of Prussia proper and Brandenburg.

These considerations induced the King of Prussia to negotiate with the courts of Vienna and St. Petersburg. He plainly notified the Emperor Joseph II. that if war should break out between Austria and Russia, he would be the ally of the Empress Catharine the Great; while he informed the Russian Empress that if she would restore the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia to the Sultan of Turkey, and indemnify herself by a portion of Poland, she would avoid a new war and facilitate a treaty of peace with the Turks.

Thus after long and intricate diplomacy, Frederick the Great succeeded in recommending to the imperial Houses of Hapsburg and Romanoff a project which was to give Europe the example of the dismemberment of a kingdom on mere pretexts of convenience. An agreement was reached between Russia and Prussia in the Convention of St. Petersburg, in February, 1772; and Maria Theresa was invited to enlarge the Austrian dominions by sharing in the spoils of ill-fated Poland. The Austrian empress-queen long resisted the nefarious project; but her councils were overruled by her Minister, Kaunitz, and by her son, the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany, after a personal interview between Joseph II. and Frederick the Great.

When Maria Theresa finally signed the treaty of partition she did it in these words: "*Placet*, because so many great and learned men will it; but when I am dead the consequences will appear of this violation of all that has been hitherto held just and sacred." The triple treaty between Russia, Prussia and Austria was signed at St. Petersburg, August 5, 1772, by which these three powers seized those portions of Poland adjoining their own dominions. By this *First Partition of Poland*, Russia absorbed Polish Livonia and the territories between the upper waters of the Dwina and the Dnieper; Prussia obtained Polish Prussia except Dantzic and Thorn, and a large part of Great Poland, embracing the district of the Netz and the fertile lands of the Vistula including Elbing, Marienburg, Culm, etc.; while Austria was assigned the palatinate of Gallicia with Lodomiria, celebrated for their rich mines. Though Prussia obtained the smaller and less populous portion of the stolen territory, the value of her share of the spoils was enhanced by the industry and wealth of its inhabitants, while it also connected Prussia proper with Brandenburg. The three powers agreed to defer taking possession of the partitioned districts until September following, and to act in concert to obtain a final settlement with Poland.

By the same treaty the Czarina of Russia agreed to restore the conquered principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia to the Sultan of Turkey, in order to expedite the conclusion of a treaty of peace between her and the Sultan. In the terms of that treaty the courts of St. Petersburg, Berlin and Vienna presented their declarations and letters-patent at Warsaw in September, 1772, and took possession of their respective shares of the spoils without much difficulty, as the Confederates of Bar had already been driven from their last stronghold. Upon taking possession, the three powers published memorials for establishing the validity of their claims over the territories assigned to them by the treaty of partition.

King Stanislas Poniatowski and his Min-

istry vainly claimed the assistance and protection of the powers that had guaranteed the treaties. The weak king and his Ministers had no other alternative than to submit to everything demanded by the three robber powers. The feeble king was compelled to summon a Diet to confirm their thefts of Polish territory; while an allied Russian, Prussian and Austrian army marched into the territories still left to Poland, in order to overawe resistance. Those Polish nobles whose estates had been seized were expressly excluded from this Diet.

Only one hundred and eleven members met in the Diet of 1773 at Warsaw; and, with the insane frivolity of despair, in a series of balls and banquets of unparalleled extravagance, they appeared to celebrate their country's ruin. This Polish Diet remained in session almost two years, A. D. 1773–1775. It vainly protested before the whole world against this iniquitous scheme —this most audacious violation of the rights of nations. It vainly showed that the pretended rights and claims which the three powers insisted upon had long been relinquished by cessions of territory and treaties of peace. Surrounded and threatened by Russian troops, the Diet at length yielded to force and consented to the dismemberment of Poland. During its two years' session the Polish Diet signed seven treaties—three with Russia, two with Prussia and two with Austria.

In thus dismembering Poland, Russia, Prussia and Austria renounced in the most formal manner all claims on the territory still remaining to Poland. Thus the First Partition of Poland was a fatal blow at the European States-System, which had prevailed for almost three centuries. After so many alliances had been contracted, and after so many wars had been undertaken to preserve the weaker states of Europe against the ambition of the stronger, three of the great powers combined to dismember a kingdom which had never given them the slightest offense. Thus the barriers between legitimate right and arbitrary power were overthrown, and thereafter the destiny of inferior states was no longer secure. The system of political equilibrium became the jest of innovators, and many well disposed men began to consider it a chimera. Though the principal blame for this iniquitous transaction rests upon Russia, Prussia and Austria, Great Britain and France were to some extent responsible because they permitted this spoliation to be consummated without protest. This and the two subsequent partitions of Poland have ever since been justly regarded as the most outrageous of political crimes.

It is very true that the vicious constitution of Poland, and the blind adherence of the nation to the worst institutions of the Middle Ages, centuries after other European nations had developed more rational and stable systems of government, would have insured Poland's destruction in any event; but the sovereigns of Russia, Prussia and Austria, who thus aggrandized themselves by Poland's ruin, could have as easily and with more justice made their power felt by the institution of a better system.

After the dismemberment of Poland, Russia guaranteed a new constitution which the Poles adopted; but, as the Polish crown remained elective and the king was rendered more helpless than before, while the mischievous Liberum Veto requiring unanimity in the proceedings of the Polish Diet was retained, the ruin of the unfortunate country was only accelerated, though foreign princes were excluded from the crown of Poland.

The year 1772 was almost entirely passed in peace negotiations between Russia and Turkey, and an armistice was agreed to by the belligerent powers. Under the mediation of Austria and Prussia, a peace congress was opened at Foczani, in Moldavia. Another peace congress was afterward held at Bucharest, in Wallachia. Both of these congresses led to no results; as the Turks regarded the conditions proposed by Russia as inadmissible, especially the article relating to the independence of the Tartars of the Crimea, which they rejected because it tended to produce a rivalry between the two

Khalifs. They settled the nature of the religious dependence which the Khans of the Crimea were to maintain toward the Ottoman Porte; but the Turks would not consent to surrender the ports of Kertch and Yenikale to the Russians, or to grant the Russian demand for the unrestricted liberty of navigation in the Turkish seas.

These conferences were broken off in 1773, when hostilities were renewed. The Russians failed in two efforts to cross the Danube into Bulgaria, and lost many men in their conflicts with the Turks. The campaign of 1774 was decisive. In that year Sultan Mustapha III. died, and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his brother ABDUL HAMID I., who made extraordinary preparations for this campaign. The Ottoman army of three hundred thousand men greatly surpassed the Russians in numbers, but were not equal to them in discipline and military skill.

About the close of June, 1774, the Russians under Marshal Romanzoff crossed the Danube into Bulgaria, and cut off communication between the Grand Vizier and his detachments near Shumla. The Grand Vizier was alarmed by the defeat of twenty-eight thousand Turks, who were bringing a convoy of five thousand wagons to his army, by the Russians under General Kamenski. Seeing that his army was about to disband, the Grand Vizier agreed to treat for peace on such conditions as Marshal Romanzoff chose to dictate.

By the Peace of Kudschuk-Kainardji, about twelve miles from Silistria, in July, 1774, Sultan Abdul Hamid I. recovered the provinces of Bessarabia, Moldavia, Wallachia, Georgia and Mingrelia and the islands in the Archipelago conquered by the Turks; but he acknowledged the political independence of the Crim Tartars north of the Black Sea, who were to elect their own sovereign from the descendants of Zingis Khan, while they continued to acknowledge the religious supremacy of the Sultan as Mohammed's successor. Russia retained the city and territory of Azov, the two Kabartas, the fortresses of Kertch and Yenikale in the Crimea, and the Castle of Kinburn, at the mouth of the Dnieper, opposite Oczakoff, with the neck of land between the Bug and the Dnieper, on which the Empress Catharine the Great afterward founded the city of Kherson to serve as an emporium for her commerce with the Levant. Russia also obtained the free navigation of the Black Sea and the right of passage through the Dardanelles for purposes of commerce.

Bukowina, which Russia had conquered from Turkey, was ceded to Austria. Prince Ghikas of Moldavia was put to death by order of the Sultan of Turkey for having opposed the cession of Bukowina to Austria; and that province was confirmed to Austria by subsequent conventions between Austria and Turkey, A. D. 1776 and 1777, which also defined the boundaries between the two Empires.

The Peace of Kudschuk-Kainardji was glorious for Russia, but disastrous to Turkey. By acknowledging the independence of the Crim Tartars, the Turks lost one of their chief bulwarks against Russia. They were exasperated at seeing the Russians established on the Black Sea and allowed unrestricted navigation in all the Turkish seas. Thenceforth they had reason to fear for the security of their capital, as the Russians might assail it with impunity and intercept its supplies whenever the least disturbance might arise between the two Empires.

In 1774 a formidable rebellion against the Empress Catharine the Great, headed by Pugatscheff, a Don Cossack, calling himself Peter III., broke out in the region of the Volga; but the revolt was speedily suppressed, after the loss of three million lives; and Pugatscheff, betrayed by his best friend, was beheaded in Moscow in 1775, and his body was cut to pieces.

In 1782 the Kalmuck Tartars, numbering half a million, affronted at the Russian Empress, abandoned their homes in European Russia, and, wandering eastward several thousand miles, settled themselves in the dominions of the Emperor of China.

Russian ambition was not satisfied by the Peace of Kudschuk-Kainardji, as the policy

of the Empress Catharine the Great aimed at the dominion of the Black Sea and its shores; and the years which followed that treaty of peace were marked by frequent disputes concerning the independence of the Crim Tartars.

The Ottoman Porte was too haughty to admit the independence of the Crim Tartars, which the Peace of Kudschuk-Kainardji had sanctioned. The Sultan was exasperated at seeing the Russians parading their flag even under the walls of Constantinople, and he made use of various stratagems to evade the execution of those articles in the treaty which did not meet with his approbation.

Russia considered the independence of the Crimea as a step toward the execution of her ambitious projects, and with this view she deposed the Khan Dowlat Gueray, who was favorably disposed toward the Sultan of Turkey, and put Sahin Gueray in his place; the latter being devoted to the Russian interests. Sahin Gueray was deposed by Selim Gueray, who made himself Khan of the Crimea, with the assistance of the Ottoman Porte; whereupon the Empress of Russia sent an army under Marshal Suwarrow into the Crimea in 1778, thus restoring her protegé by force of arms.

The Sultan of Turkey now made great preparations for war with Russia, and a rupture between the two Empires appeared inevitable, when the mediation of M. de St. Priest, the French ambassador at Constantinople, brought about an agreement between Russia and Turkey, called the *Explicative Convention*, concluded at Constantinople, March 21, 1779. By this arrangement the independence of the Crimea and the sovereignty of Sahin Gueray were acknowledged and confirmed anew. Russia and Turkey agreed to withdraw their troops from the Crimean peninsula and also from the island of Taman. Turkey promised particularly never to assert any pretexts of spiritual alliance to interfere with the civil or political power of the Khans of the Crimea. The free intercourse between the black Sea and the White Sea was expressly secured to all Russian vessels of the same form, size and capacity as the ships of other nations that carried on commerce in the Turkish ports.

The Explicative Convention did not restore any permanent good understanding between the Muscovite and Ottoman Empires; as fresh difficulties soon arose in the Crimea, where another revolution resulted in the deposition of the Khan Sahin Gueray by the party which adhered to the Sultan of Turkey, A. D. 1782.

Thereupon a Russian army under Potemkin marched into the Crimea and restored the deposed Khan, while a Russian fleet sailed from Azov and cut off all communication between the malcontents and the Turkish capital. The Empress Catharine the Great, who now considered the time opportune for the annexation of the Crimea to her dominions, caused her troops to occupy that peninsula and the whole of the Cuban, or Little Tartary, and drove the Turks from the island of Taman, which they had occupied for the purpose of opening a communication with the Crim Tartars. The Czarina issued a manifesto explaining the motives which actuated her in annexing the Crimea, the Cuban and the isle of Taman to the Russian Empire, and requiring the Khan Sahin Gueray to resign formally the sovereignty of the Crimea, June 28, 1783. When the Crim Tartars resisted, thirty thousand of them were massacred by the Russians.

The annexation of the Crimea to the Russian Empire was a terrible blow to the Ottoman Porte. The populace of Constantinople loudly demanded war against Russia; but the Divan, who was conscious of Turkish weakness, sought every expedient to avoid hostilities. Russia made immense military and naval preparations; and the Empress Catharine the Great had a thorough understanding with the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany, who was now also hereditary sovereign of Austria, Bohemia and Hungary. England, then under the administration of the younger William Pitt, vainly endeavored to incite the Turks to take up arms against Russia; but they were restrained by France and Austria.

After some negotiation, a new treaty between Russia and Turkey was signed at Constantinople, January 8, 1784. By this treaty Russia obtained the sovereignty of the Crimean peninsula, the island of Taman, and all that part of the Cuban which lay on the right bank of the Cuban river and which had formed a frontier between the Russian and Ottoman Empires. Turkey obtained the fortress of Oczakoff and all its territory, to which the Crim Tartars had some claims. Thus ended the Tartar dominion in the Crimea—a dominion which had existed there since the days of Zingis Khan's successors, and which had once been so terrible to Russia. The Empress Catharine the Great formed all of that vast country on the north side of the Black Sea into two new governments—Taurida and Caucasia.

Paul Potemkin—the all-powerful favorite of the Czarina of Russia, and the chief director of her policy in Crimean affairs—founded the new capital Kherson, for the two new governments of Taurida and Caucasia. The happiness and prosperity of the inhabitants ceased with their freedom. The once splendid city of tents degenerated into a camp of gypsies, and the houses and palaces of stone fell into ruins.

In May, 1787, the Czarina Catharine the Great visited her newly-acquired provinces of Taurida and Caucasia to do honor to Potemkin and to receive the homage of her new Tartar subjects. She embarked at Kiev, and sailed down the Dnieper with a sumptuous flotilla of twenty-two vessels. She was joined in her journey by King Stanislas Poniatowski of Poland, the victim of her wiles, and by the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany, who accompanied the Russian Empress in disguise and discussed with her their common plans for the spoliation of Turkey.

In order to produce the impression that the newly-acquired territories were prosperous and blooming, Potemkin caused temporary villages to be erected along the route of the Czarina's journey, and peopled them with inhabitants brought from a distance and dressed in holiday attire, while herds of cattle and sheep grazed in the intervening pastures, and country festivals were held along the road; but no sooner had the brilliant procession passed than hamlets, people and herds disappeared like a scene in a drama. This affair fully illustrates the illusive character of this entire reign so far as civilization is concerned.

The evident design of the Empress Catharine II. of expelling the Turks from Europe, and founding a new Christian empire, with Constantinople for its capital, and a member of the imperial House of Romanoff for its prince, and the aggressive conduct of Russia in the region of the Black Sea, alarmed the Ottoman Porte. For a long time the greatest animosity had existed between Russia and Turkey. The Turks could not endure the humiliating conditions which Russia had imposed upon them. The high tone which the court of St. Petersburg had assumed in its official communications wounded the pride of the Ottomans; and the remarkable journey of the Empress Catharine the Great and the Emperor Joseph II. excited intense alarm in Constantinople, where it was believed that the journey indicated a premeditated design of the imperial Houses of Romanoff and Hapsburg to annihilate the Ottoman Empire and to divide the spoil between them.

England and Prussia dexterously fanned the smouldering flame in the Turkish capital; as they desired to be avenged on Russia for the obstacles which she had thrown in the way of renewing their treaty of commerce, and for the advantageous conditions which she had granted to France by the commercial treaty which she had concluded with that power. British jealousy had been excited by the great activity which Russia had displayed in carrying on her commerce in the Black Sea since she had obtained entire liberty of commerce by her treaties with Turkey, England fearing that her own commercial relations with the Ottoman Empire in the Black Sea might be destroyed.

The Turks also complained of the hostile conduct of the Russian consul in Moldavia,

whom they accused of seeking by every means in his power to interrupt the amicable relations between the Russian and Ottoman Empires. The Turks demanded that the obnoxious Russian consul be recalled, and that the Empress Catharine the Great should renounce the protection of Prince Heraclius of Georgia and withdraw her troops from that principality. The Turks also desired that all Russian vessels passing the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus should be subjected to an examination for the purpose of preventing contraband trade.

As soon as the Empress of Russia had returned to St. Petersburg from her extraordinary journey to Taurida, the Divan declared war against Russia, without waiting for an answer from the Russian court, by seizing M. de Boulgakoff, the Russian ambassador at Constantinople, and sending him a prisoner to the Castle of the Seven Towers, August 18, 1787. Upon hearing of this action of the Sublime Porte, the Czarina of Russia sent a large army under Potemkin against the Turks; her troops occupying a line from Kaminiec, in Podolia, to Balta, a Tartar village on the Polish frontier, between the Dniester and the Bug. Under Potemkin served Suwarrow, Repnin, Kamenski and other able generals.

Thus another bloody land and naval war broke out between Russia and Turkey, and lasted five years, A. D. 1787–1792. The Turks began hostilities by an attack on Kinburn in September, 1787, in which they were repulsed.

For some time the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany attempted to mediate between Russia and Turkey, and he finally declared war against Turkey and thus became the ally of the Russian Empress, February 9, 1788. At the head of the Austrian army, Joseph II. attacked the Turks in Moldavia and at several points from Hungary. The Austrian force under Marshal Laudon besieged Belgrade, and took that fortress October 8, 1789, and subdued portions of Servia and Wallachia; but the Emperor Joseph II. had in the meantime returned to Vienna.

In 1788 King Gustavus III. of Sweden, instigated by England and Prussia, made war on Russia as an ally of Turkey, and thus prevented the Russian fleets in the Baltic from sailing to the Mediterranean. By his orders a Swedish army was formed in Swedish Finland; while a Swedish fleet of twenty ships-of-the-line and ten frigates advanced on Cronstadt, thus creating consternation in St. Petersburg. An indecisive engagement occurred between the Swedish and Russian fleets near the island of Hoogland, May 30, 1789. The Swedish king had prepared to attack the city of Fredericksham, in Russian Finland; but several of his officers refused to march, assigning as a reason that the constitution of Sweden did not permit them to be accessory to an offensive war, which the Swedish nation had not sanctioned. The example of these Swedish officers was followed by a large portion of their troops; and thus the Swedish expedition to Russian Finland failed, allowing the Russians time to put themselves in a state of defense.

When the Empress of Russia found herself thus attacked by the King of Sweden she called upon her ally, King Christian VII. of Denmark, to invade Sweden. The King of Denmark fitted out a squadron and sent an army into Sweden. This Danish army soon conquered the province of Bohus, after which it marched into West Gothland and besieged Gottenburg, A. D. 1788. The Swedish king hastened in person to the defense of that city, which was one of the most important in his kingdom. The Danes would have taken Gottenburg had not England, Holland and Prussia now intervened and compelled Christian VII. of Denmark to conclude truces with Sweden and remain neutral in the war, A. D. 1789.

The war between Russia and Sweden was then confined to naval operations, and in the campaigns of 1789 and 1790 success was almost evenly balanced on both sides. The Swedish fleet was defeated in the Gulf of Viborg, July 3, 1790; but the Swedish fleet under King Gustavus III. gained a great victory over the Russian fleet com-

manded by the Prince of Nassau-Siegen at Swenkasund, July 9–10, 1790, the Russians losing many ships and men. The King of Sweden, deserted by England and Prussia, and fearing that the Russians would take advantage of the discontents prevailing among the Swedish nobles to invade his kingdom, accepted the equitable conditions of peace which the Empress Catharine the Great offered him; and by the Peace of Werela, near the river Kymen, August 14, 1790, the boundaries of Russia and Sweden remained as they had been before the war.

In the meantime the Russians had been completely victorious over the Turks. An allied Russian and Austrian army captured the fortress of Kotzim in September, 1788. After the Ottoman fleet had been totally destroyed in a battle near Oczakoff, in June, 1788, a Russian army under Prince Potemkin laid siege to Oczakoff, and took that strong fortress by storm December 17, 1788, in spite of the gallant defense made by the Turks. The victorious Russians massacred the entire garrison and many of the inhabitants. An allied Russian and Austrian army under Marshal Suwarrow and the Prince of Coburg defeated the Turks near Foczani, in Moldavia, July 21, 1789, and also near Martinesti, on the river Rymna, September 22, 1789, thus obtaining possession of the strong fortress of Bender; after which the Russians effected the conquest of Moldavia and Bessarabia by the successive captures of a number of strong fortresses. Suwarrow took the fortress of Ismail by storm, December 22, 1790, and massacred twenty thousand Turks; while the Turkish fleet was destroyed near Sevastopol.

The road to Constantinople now stood open to the Russians; and the name Constantine, given to the second grandson of the Empress Catharine the Great, was believed to indicate the Czarina's secret design of placing a Christian prince upon the throne of Constantinople. This alarmed England and Prussia; and the British Ministry under the younger William Pitt sent an expedition to make a diversion in favor of Sultan SELIM III., the successor of Abdul Hamid I, who had died in 1789; while King Frederick William II. of Prussia sent an army to the frontiers of Silesia and Poland as a menace to Austria and Russia, and even entered into a formal alliance with Turkey, agreeing to declare war against Austria and Russia the next spring.

All these powerful interventions rendered peace more difficult, because of the offense thus given to the Empress Catharine the Great by the attempt of other powers to dictate terms to her; but the death of the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany and the rebellions in Hungary and the Austrian Netherlands rendered peace a necessity to Austria. The Emperor Leopold II., the successor of Joseph II., desired peace, and yielded to the menaces of England and Prussia; and thus Austria concluded the Peace of Reichenbach with Prussia, July 27, 1790, by which she entered into an armistice with Turkey and consented to make peace with the Sultan on the basis of the *status ante bellum*. By the Peace of Sistova, in Bulgaria, between Austria and Turkey, August 4, 1791, signed under the mediation of Holland and Prussia, Austria restored the fortress of Belgrade and most of the other conquests which the Austrians had made from the Turks during the war.

The Empress of Russia, disdaining the dictation of the powers which had offered their unwelcome intervention, then prosecuted the war alone against the Ottoman Empire; and her armies gained new victories over the Turks in the campaign of 1791. Great Britain and Prussia were now anxious for peace with Russia, and their desertion of the cause of Turkey led to negotiations for peace between the Czarina and the Sultan. A preliminary treaty between Russia and Turkey was signed at Galatz, on the Danube; and this was followed by the definitive Peace of Jassy, in Moldavia, January 9, 1792.

By the Peace of Jassy the stipulations of all the treaties between Russia and Turkey since the Peace of Kudschuk-Kainardji were renewed, and the Dniester was mutually

recognized as the boundary between the Russian and Ottoman Empires. Thus the Sultan ceded the fortress of Oczakoff with all the territory between the Bug and the Dniester to Russia, and confirmed the cession of the Crimea, the isle of Taman, and that part of the Cuban lying on the right bank of the Cuban river, to Russia. The Sublime Porte also agreed to suppress the piracies of the Barbary corsairs in the Mediterranean, and even to indemnify Russian subjects for their losses by those piracies in case reparation was not given them within a limited time. Russia restored all her other conquests, only stipulating for certain advantages in favor of the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia.

By the Peace of Jassy the Sublime Porte had agreed to pay a war-indemnity of twelve million piasters to Russia; but immediately after the conclusion of the treaty the Empress Catharine the Great renounced this payment—an act of generosity which excited the admiration of the Ottoman plenipotentiaries. The Peace of Jassy gave new energy to Russian commerce on the Black Sea; and the Russian Empress founded the commercial city of Odessa, on that sea.

In the meantime Poland was trying to free herself from Russian domination. The Poles had flattered themselves that while Russia was engaged in war with Turkey and Sweden they would be left at liberty to alter their constitution and thus give new vigor to their government. An extraordinary Diet, convened at Warsaw in 1788, organized itself into a confederation for the purpose of avoiding the inconveniences of the Liberum Veto and of the unanimity required in ordinary Diets.

The Empress of Russia sought to induce this Polish Diet to join her in an alliance against Turkey; but her designs were frustrated by King Frederick William II. of Prussia, who, as the ally of England and Turkey, used every effort to instigate the Poles against Russia. The Prussian king encouraged the Poles by offering them his alliance in their effort to reform their government, which Russia had recently guaranteed. The Polish Diet appointed a Committee of Legislation, which was commissioned to frame a constitution that would give new energy to Poland. With the support of Prussia, the Polish Diet dissolved the *Perpetual Council*, which Russia had established at Warsaw to rule Poland.

The action of the Polish Diet displeased the Empress Catharine the Great, who remonstrated against it as a direct infraction of the treaty which she had entered into with Poland in 1775. The Poles, thus foreseeing the trouble in which their design would involve them with the Russian Empress, should have considered how to put themselves into a good state of defense. But instead of improving their finances and putting their army on a respectable footing, the Polish Diet wasted precious time in discussing the plan of the new constitution which had been submitted to it.

The assurances of protection and support which Prussia had officially given to the Poles rendered them too confident; and the treaty of alliance which King Frederick William II. of Prussia had practically concluded with Poland, March 29, 1790, lulled the Poles into a profound security. King Stanislas Poniatowski long hesitated as to which party he ought to sustain, and at length he joined the national party in the Polish Diet which desired to extricate Poland from that state of degradation into which she had fallen. The new constitution was adopted by acclamation May 3, 1791, and King Stanislas Poniatowski took an oath to observe and defend it.

This constitution, which was applauded by all Europe except Russia, changed Poland from an elective kingdom into an hereditary monarchy with two legislative chambers; and, however imperfect it might appear, it was in accordance with the state of civilization which Poland had attained. It corrected several of the errors and defects of former Polish statutes; and, though it was practically republican, it was free from the extravagant ideas of republicanism which had been brought into fashion by the French Revolution, then in full blaze.

This new Polish constitution made the throne of Poland hereditary in the Electoral House of Saxony, abolished the absurd Liberum Veto and the law of unanimity based thereon, and declared the Diet permanent with two legislative chambers—a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The Chamber of Deputies was composed of representatives of the Polish people elected for two years, and was empowered to frame and discuss laws. The Senate, over which the king presided, was invested with the power of sanctioning or rejecting the laws proposed by the Chamber of Deputies. The executive power was vested in the king and a Council of Superintendence consisting of seven members, or responsible Ministers.

This constitution conferred upon the inhabitants of the Polish towns the privilege of electing their own Deputies and Judges, and the way for attaining the honors of nobility was laid open to the burgesses. The nobility were retained in all the plenitude of their rights and prerogatives; and the peasantry, hitherto in a condition of abject servitude, were placed under the immediate protection of the laws and the government. The constitution sanctioned in advance the compacts which the landed proprietors might enter into with their tenantry to ameliorate the condition of the latter.

The efforts made by the Poles to secure their independence aroused the resentment of the Empress of Russia. As soon as Catharine the Great had concluded the Peace of Jassy with the Sultan of Turkey she engaged a party of Polish nobles who were dissatisfied with the new constitution to form the *Confederation of Targowicz* for the purpose of restoring the old elective constitution. The Confederation of Targowicz, signed May 14, 1792, was headed by the Counts Felix Potochi, Rzewuski and Branicki. This party received the aid of the Russian Empress, who immediately sent an army into Poland to wage war against the supporters of the new constitution.

For the first time the Poles thought of adopting vigorous measures. The Diet of Poland ordered an army to take the field against the Confederates of Targowicz and their Russian allies, and decreed a levy of several corps of light troops. The Diet also ordered a loan of thirty-three million florins without the least opposition; but the refusal of the Diet to accede to a mercantile scheme by which Dantzic and Thorn were to be relinquished to the King of Prussia had disaffected that monarch toward Poland; and when the Prussian ambassador at Warsaw was called upon to give some explanation as to the subsidies which King Frederick William II. had promised to Poland by the treaty of alliance in 1790 he gave an evasive answer, thus discouraging the whole patriotic party of Poland. It was therefore an easy matter for the Empress of Russia to obtain the consent of the King of Prussia to another dismemberment of Poland. Accordingly the King of Prussia, who had just been in alliance with the Polish patriots, now sided with Russia in the contest, on the ground that the principles of French republicanism were embodied in the new Polish constitution. Although the events in Poland, where the king and the nation were acting in concert, had nothing in common with the French Revolution except appearances, so great was the dread which the crowned heads of Europe entertained for everything resembling that great event that King Frederick William II. of Prussia was thereby influenced to break his treaty of alliance with Poland.

Then for the first time the Poles fully comprehended the danger of their situation. Their first ardor cooled, and the entire Polish Diet was thrown into a state of the utmost consternation. Thus abandoned to her own resources and convulsed by internal dissensions, Poland then perceived her utter inability to cope with an enemy so powerful as Russia.

The campaign of 1792 resulted wholly to the disadvantage of the Polish patriots. The illustrious Thaddeus Kosciuszko, who had nobly fought for freedom in America, became the chief of the patriot party, and led the Polish army against the Russians,

by whom he was defeated at Dubienka, July 17, 1792. The victorious Russians advanced on Warsaw; and King Stanislas Poniatowski was so intimidated by a threatening letter from the Russian Empress that he renounced hostilities against Russia and joined the Confederation of Targowicz by renouncing the new Polish constitution and the acts of the revolutionary Diet at Warsaw. The Polish king was even intimidated to subscribe to all the conditions which the Empress Catharine the Great thought proper to dictate to him, August 25, 1792. An armistice was agreed to, which stipulated for the reduction of the Polish army. The gallant Polish patriots, whose efforts had been paralyzed by the cowardice and irresolution of their king, fled from their country, burning with wrath against their Russian oppressors.

In consequence of the Convention of St. Petersburg between Russia and Prussia, January 23, 1793, a Prussian army invaded Poland and overran the country as did the Russians. In April, 1793, the Russian and Prussian courts issued proclamations declaring those portions of Poland occupied by their respective troops annexed to their own dominions, assigning as a reason that the principles of the French Revolution were fast gaining ground in Poland as evinced by the adoption of the constitution of 1791. The Polish Diet which assembled at Grodno, and which resolutely, but vainly, opposed itself to the new treaty of partition, was surrounded by Russian troops, who violently carried off the boldest speakers; and the *Second Partition of Poland*, between Russia and Prussia, was successfully consummated, A. D. 1793.

By this second partition the eastern Polish provinces of Volhynia, Podolia, Lithuania, the Ukraine and Little Poland were absorbed by Russia; while most of Great Poland, including the cities of Dantzic and Thorn, along with the town of Czenstochowa, in Little Poland, were annexed to Prussia; thus leaving to the Republic of Poland scarcely a third portion of her former territory.

The Polish Diet at Grodno was compelled to ratify treaties with Russia and Prussia surrendering the provinces which the two powers had seized. The treaty between Poland and Russia was signed by the Diet of Grodno, July 13, 1793; but that between Poland and Prussia met with the most determined opposition, so that it was necessary to use threats of force before it was ratified, October, 1793.

The stolen provinces were immediately occupied by Russian and Prussian troops; and General Iglestrom, the Russian ambassador at Warsaw, ruled with pride and insolence in Poland. After the treaties of partition Russia and Prussia again renounced all further claims against Poland, and they agreed to guarantee the constitution that the Polish Diet should establish with the free consent of the Polish nation.

These treaties of partition were also followed by a treaty of alliance between Russia and Poland, October 16, 1793, the third article of which guaranteed their mutual assistance in case of attack by any other power; the direction of the war being reserved to Russia, as well as the privilege of sending her troops into Poland and establishing magazines there when she might consider it necessary to do so; while Poland agreed to enter into no alliance with foreign powers and to make no change in her constitution without the approbation of Russia. What remained of the Republic of Poland was divided into eighteen Palatinates; each of which was assigned two Senators, a Palatine, a Castellan, and six Deputies in the national Diet.

These different treaties and the grievances of which the Poles had just cause to complain excited the public mind in Poland to the highest degree, and again aroused the national spirit. A secret association was formed at Warsaw, and extended its various branches all over Poland; and in the spring of 1794 this secret organization of Polish patriots inaugurated a conspiracy for the purpose of reconquering the lost territories and restoring the constitutional government. This conspiracy found numerous

partisans in the Polish army, which was to have been disbanded according to the treaties with Russia. Kosciuszko and the emigrant Poles returned to their country and placed themselves at the head of the patriot party, whose central point was then at Cracow.

The Poles counted with confidence on the aid of Austria, which had no share in the Second Partition of Poland, and flattered themselves that Turkey and Sweden, the old enemies of Russia, would not remain idle spectators of the efforts which they were making to recover their liberty and independence. Kosciuszko had desired that his countrymen should pospone the execution of their plan in order to gain more time for preparation, especially as a suspicion was aroused among the Russians. He even retired from Saxony into Italy, where he remained until one of his accomplices, who had been ordered to leave Poland on the charge of propagating sedition, informed him that his countrymen desired him to return to Poland without delay, as a better opportunity might not soon present itself.

Upon his reappearance in Poland, Kosciuszko, as the chosen leader of the projected insurrection, proceeded at once to Cracow. The signal for insurrection was given by Madalinski, the commander of a brigade of cavalry under the new government in Poland, who threw off the mask by refusing to disband his force when ordered to do so, and who suddenly retired from his station, crossed the Vistula, dispersed some Prussian detachments which he encountered in his route, marched directly to Cracow, and there erected the standard of revolt.

The inhabitants of Cracow at once flew to arms, drove the Russian troops from their city, and proclaimed Kosciuszko as their commander-in-chief, conferring upon him the powers of a dictator during the struggle for the liberation of Poland, March 24, 1794. He took an oath of fidelity to the nation and of adherence to the principles enunciated in the act of insurrection by which war was declared against the foreign invaders of their rights and liberties. He also issued a summons to his countrymen calling upon them to rise in arms for the recovery of their freedom and independence, for the reconquest of their lost territories, and for the establishment of constitutional government.

Russian and Prussian troops were immediately sent to check the progress of the insurrection. Kosciuszko's victory over a Russian detachment at Raslavice inspired the Polish patriots with new courage. The flame of insurrection spread to Warsaw, where the tocsin of revolt was sounded on the night of Maundy-Thursday, April 17, 1794, when the insurgents seized the arsenal and distributed arms and ammunition among the populace. A brisk cannonade took place between the populace and the Russian garrison, which lasted two days, during which twenty-five hundred Russians were slain, while four thousand five hundred were taken prisoners, and General Iglestrom fled from the city with about three thousand. Iglestrom's palace was burned to the ground, and four of the leading Polish partisans of Russia were hanged. An insurrection also broke out at Wilna and extended over all Lithuania. Several Polish regiments in the Russian service changed sides and enlisted under the banners of the insurgents, and all Poland was soon in arms.

Notwithstanding her first success, it was soon perceived that Poland lacked in the essential resources for an enterprise of such a magnitude as that in which she had engaged. The bulk of the citizens were neither sufficiently numerous nor sufficiently wealthy to serve as a center for the revolution which they had undertaken, while the servitude in which the peasantry had always been kept was not at all calculated to inspire them with enthusiasm for a cause in which their masters only were to gain anything.

The nobles, who should have shown energy and courage, were but little disposed to give any effectual support to the cause of Polish liberty. Every contribution seemed to them an encroachment on their preroga-

tives; and they were as much averse to a levy *en masse* as they were opposed to the raising of recruits, as both deprived them of their tenantry. They were also afraid of losing those rights and privileges which they exclusively enjoyed. The Polish patriots were also divided in opinion; and King Stanislas Poniatowski, although seemingly approving their action, inspired such mistrust by his timidity and weakness that they even accused him of secretly abetting the Russian interests.

Under these circumstances, Kosciuszko was convinced of the impossibility of organizing an army capable of coping with that of the Russians and the Prussians, who were acting in concert to defeat the measures of the Polish patriots.

After some inferior operations, an important engagement occurred on the frontiers of the Palatinates of Siradia and Cujavia, June 8, 1794, in which Kosciuszko was defeated, thus enabling King Frederick William II. of Prussia to take possession of Cracow. With the support of a Russian detachment, the King of Prussia besieged Warsaw. The main force of the Polish army, assembled under the walls of Warsaw, amounted to about twenty-two thousand men; while the allied Russians and Prussians numbered more than fifty thousand. After the siege of Warsaw had lasted two months, a general insurrection which had spread from Prussia's recently acquired province of Great Poland into West Prussia obliged the Prussian king to raise the siege and to retire, in order that he might suppress the revolt in his own dominions. He was pursued in his retreat by the Poles under Kosciuszko, Dombrowski and Joseph Poniatowski; the last of whom was the Polish king's nephew.

The joy of the Polish patriots on account of the disastrous retreat of the Prussians was of short duration. The Polish success only increased the enemy's desire for vengeance; while Austria, which had hitherto observed a strict neutrality, also sent an army into Poland. This Austrian army advanced in two columns, one marching against Brzesci and the other against Dowbno. A Russian army under Field-Marshal Suwarrow marched into Lithuania in pursuit of a Polish detachment under Sirakowski.

Kosciuszko, now seeing the great superiority of the enemy, made a final effort to prevent a junction of the Russian armies commanded respectively by Field-Marshal Suwarrow and Baron de Fersen. He accordingly marched against Baron de Fersen, by whom he was defeated in a sanguinary engagement near Macziewice, October 10, 1794. In this battle, which lasted from sunrise until beyond noon, six thousand of the Polish army were slain and the remainder were taken prisoners. Kosciuszko sought to escape by the swiftness of his steed, but was overtaken by a detachment of Cossacks, one of whom, not knowing who he was, thrust a lance into his back. The illustrious Polish patriot, thus wounded, fell from his horse, exclaiming: "The end of Poland!" He was carried a prisoner to a monastery, where one of his officers intimated to his captors that he was the Polish leader, whereupon surgical aid was rendered to him; and he was soon afterward conveyed a captive to St. Petersburg.

The Poles were terribly dejected by Kosciuszko's defeat and capture; and Generals Dombrowski and Madalinski, who commanded the Polish forces in Polish Prussia and Great Poland, retired from those provinces and advanced with their armies to the relief of Warsaw. Field-Marshal Suwarrow led the Russian army toward Poland's capital, where he was reinforced by a large Prussian force under Dorfelden and Fersen, in conjunction with which he laid siege to Warsaw, November 4, 1794. The Russians, twenty-two thousand in number, prepared for an assault on the intrenchments of Praga, a suburb of the Polish capital. The Polish garrison, numbering from eight thousand to ten thousand men, made a heroic defense; but they were unable to withstand the ardor and impetuosity of the Russians, who were burning with rage to avenge the blood of their countrymen massacred at Warsaw.

The Russians had erected three batteries during the night; and the first two divisions bravely surmounted every obstacle, though harassed by a vigorous fire in every direction except the rear. Within four hours the besiegers carried the triple line of intrenchments of Praga by storm; after which they rushed into the town and pursued the Polish troops through the streets, massacred many of them, and drove about a thousand into the Vistula. A regiment of Jews which made an obstinate defense was at length wholly exterminated. Thirteen thousand Poles were slain in the struggle. Two thousand were drowned in the Vistula. From fourteen thousand to fifteen thousand were taken prisoners. The suburb of Praga was pillaged and was razed to the ground.

The fall of Praga spread consternation among the inhabitants of Warsaw, and made them willing to surrender. Field-Marshal Suwarrow made his triumphant entry into Poland's capital and received the keys of the city, November 9, 1794. The Polish troops laid down their arms. All resistance was at an end, and poor Poland lay prostrate and bleeding at the feet of her merciless conquerors. Most of the leaders of the patriot party were arrested by the conquering Russians, and King Stanislas Poniatowski fled to Grodno.

A partition of what remained of the Republic of Poland, between Russia, Prussia and Austria, took place in 1795. The three allied powers only came to an agreement respecting the final dismemberment of the unhappy kingdom after almost ten months of negotiation.

Prussia had signified her intention of retaining Cracow and the neighboring territory which had just been taken possession of by her troops; but Austria, which also desired to appropriate that part of Poland, took advantage of the dissatisfaction which Prussia's conduct during the campaign of 1794 and her retreat from the ensuing coalition had aroused in the Empress Catharine the Great, and entered into a separate negotiation with the Czarina.

Russia and Austria arranged secretly with each other concerning the shares of the Polish territory which each should have. These two powers signed a convention at St. Petersburg, January 3, 1795, inviting Prussia to accede to the stipulations which they had agreed upon between them, and offering to acquiesce in the annexation of the remainder of ill-fated Poland to the Prussian monarchy and to guarantee such acquisition.

A protracted negotiation afterward took place between the three allied powers. This tedious diplomacy was owing to the fact that Prussia, which was unaware of the secret treaty between Russia and Austria assigning Cracow to Austria, had always entertained the hope of being able to retain that city and the surrounding territory herself. Only when the secret treaty of partition between Russia and Austria, signed at St. Petersburg, January 3, 1795, was revealed to Prussia did the court of Berlin agree to a special convention with the court of Vienna.

By this special convention between Prussia and Austria, signed at St. Petersburg, October 24, 1795, Prussia relinquished the city of Cracow and its immediate vicinity to Austria, which in turn abandoned to Prussia a part of the Polish territory which her secret convention with Russia, signed at St. Petersburg, January 3, 1795, had secured to her. Prussia and Austria now agreed that the limits of the Palatinate of Cracow should be regulated between them under the mediation of Russia.

As the three allied powers had now come to an agreement respecting the division of what remained of Poland among themselves, King Stanislas Poniatowski was obliged to abdicate the crown of Poland, which he formally did at Grodno, November 25, 1795. He took up his residence at St. Petersburg, where he was supported by an annual pension of two hundred thousand ducats from the three allied powers until his death, which occurred in 1798—an object of deserved contempt.

By the *Third Partition of Poland*, as agreed upon by the various treaties between

BOYAR—CZAR—BOYAR (17TH CENTURY).

POLISH LANCER AND ARMORED CAVALRYMAN (BATTLE OF WARSAW, 1654)

JOHN SOBIESKI (1683).

A BOYAR LADY—BOYARS (17TH AND 18TH CENTURY).

POLAND AND RUSSIA IN THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURY.

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the three allied powers, Austria obtained the southern provinces of the prostrate kingdom with Cracow; Prussia took the Polish territory west of the Vistula with Warsaw; and Russia seized the remainder of the ill-fated kingdom.

Thus the once-powerful Poland ceased to exist as an independent power, being entirely blotted from the list of independent nations—a victim to its own weakness and its internal dissensions, and to one of the most audacious outrages in all history in the rapacity of its neighbors.

The Empress Catharine the Great did not long survive this great political crime. She died November 7, 1796, and was succeeded on the throne of Russia by her son, the eccentric PAUL, who released Kosciuszko. That illustrious patriot died as a private individual in Switzerland in October, 1817, and his remains were conveyed to Cracow.

SECTION IX.—ENGLAND AND THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

WE HAVE already alluded to the accession of King GEORGE III. to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland upon the death of his grandfather George II., October 25, 1760. George III. was the son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, who died nine years before his father, King George II. George III. was the first of the House of Brunswick who was born in England; and, as we have already noticed, he gloried in the name of Briton. He had received a passable education, and was a man of pleasing address and of good intentions.

George III. ascended the British throne with the firm determination to rule Great Britain and Ireland in person, and he was more responsible for the policy of his reign than the first two Georges. He was a man of good morals, and of naturally small mind, without the least capacity to use greater minds than his own for the accomplishment of his designs. He hated and was jealous of the great English statesmen of his time, especially William Pitt the Great Commoner. He was determined that such measures only as he had conceived or adopted should be carried out during his reign. He desired to govern as well as to reign, and to be entirely free from the dictation of political parties. In the pursuit of his ends, which were always well defined, but frequently very unwise, George III. was as obstinate as it was possible for a man to be.

The total collapse of Jacobitism had left the Tory party free to take an active part in British politics again, and that party now came to the king's support with a zeal equal to that which it had manifested in behalf of the Stuarts. The Tories now constituted a "King's Party," which George III. was able to strengthen by the bestowal of the patronage still left at the disposal of the crown. His mother, the Princess of Wales, had repeatedly said to him in his youth: "George, be king." But he did not desire to undo the work of the Revolution of 1688, and called himself a "Whig of the Revolution." He did not wish to govern against law, but simply to govern—to be free from the dictation of parties and Ministers, or, in other words, to be practically his own Prime Minister.

The king's idea was wholly incompatible with the Parliamentary constitution of England as it had received its final form from the Earl of Sunderland; but George III. was resolved to carry out his idea, in which resolution he was aided by the circumstances of the time. The immense patronage of the crown—all promotion in the Church, all advancement in the army, many civil appointments—all of which had been practically usurped by the Ministers of the first two Georges, was resumed and firmly held

by George III., who was aided by the character of the House of Commons.

Sir Robert Walpole had used bribery as a weapon to hold the Whig party together and to keep himself in power for so long a time. George III. made use of that same corrupt means to break up that same Whig party, which was now rent by that spirit of faction which comes from a long and undisputed lease of power. The Whigs were also weakened by the rising contempt with which the English nation regarded the selfishness and corruption of the leaders and politicians of that party.

More than thirty years before, Gay had represented the most prominent statesmen of the time on the public stage under the guise of highwaymen and pickpockets. Said the witty playwright: "It is difficult to determine whether the fine gentlemen imitate the gentlemen of the road, or the gentlemen of the road the fine gentlemen." As the "fine gentlemen" were represented by such jobbers as the Duke of Newcastle, the public contempt was fiercer than ever before; so that men turned in disgust from the intrigues and corruption of party to the young king who assumed the character which Lord Bolingbroke had represented as that of a patriotic monarch.

George the Third King of Great Britain &c. &c.

Had the Whig leaders, Mr. Pitt and the Duke of Newcastle, held together, the one being backed by the commercial class and by public opinion, and the other by the Whig families and by the whole machinery of Parliamentary management, George III. would have struggled vainly and hopelessly. But the dissensions in the Ministry and the forced resignation of Pitt in 1761 gave the king the opportunity he so much desired. Anxious to bring the Seven Years' War to a close, George III. quickly availed himself of the weakness and unpopularity of the Whig Ministry after Pitt's retirement from office to drive the Duke of Newcastle from power by a series of studied mortifications, and to place the Earl of Bute at the head of the Ministry. The other Whig Ministers—even the Duke of Devonshire, who had been made Lord Chamberlain as a reward for his exertions in behalf of the House of Brunswick—were also obliged to resign; and for the first time since the accession of that dynasty a Tory Ministry was in power, as already noticed.

The Earl of Bute was a mere court favorite, with the abilities of a gentleman usher, and was a mere puppet in the king's hands, utterly willing to do the king's will, which was simply to withdraw England from the Seven Years' War at any sacrifice of the national honor. As we have seen, England under the Earl of Bute withdrew her subsidies from Frederick the Great, and concluded the Peace of Paris with France and Spain, in February, 1763, thus reducing the King of Prussia to the necessity of concluding the Peace of Hubertsburg with Austria.

The anxiety of King George III. to end the Seven Years' War sprang solely from his desire to begin the struggle for power at home by which he sought to give his undivided attention to the task of bringing the internal affairs of Great Britain under his own control. Pitt's return to office and the union of the Whigs under his guidance was a constant peril to the king's plans so long as the war lasted. The king could depend on the dissensions of the Whigs, on the support of the Tories, on the influence of the crown patronage which he had taken into his own hands, and on the corrupt character of the House of Commons.

Though the House of Commons had become the ruling power in England, the government hanging simply on its will, it had long ceased to represent the English people. The changes in the distribution of seats, which had been brought about by the natural shiftings of population since the time of Edward I., had been recognized during the civil war between Charles I. and Parliament; but the reforms of the Long Parliament were canceled at the time of the Stuart Restoration, in 1660. Thenceforth until the reign of George III. no effort was made to check the abuses of the Parliamentary system.

Great towns like Manchester and Birmingham, which had risen with the growth of trade and manufactures in Walpole's time, had no representative in the House of Commons, which was composed principally of the representatives of boroughs which were controlled by the great nobles, who returned as members of the House of Commons whom they pleased, buying and selling seats to the highest bidder. Some of these boroughs, like Old Sarum, had actually ceased to exist for a long time.

This condition of things had its origin in the efforts of the Tudor sovereigns to establish a court party in the House of Commons by a profuse creation of boroughs, most of which were mere villages then at the disposal of the crown, and resulted in the appropriation of these seats by the neighboring land-owners, who bought and sold them as they did their own estates. Even in towns which had a real claim to representation the restriction of municipal privileges ever since the fourteenth century to a small proportion of the inhabitants of such towns, and in many instances the limitation of the elective franchise to members of the governing corporation, rendered their representation simply nominal.

The choice of such seats in the House of Commons depended merely on the purse or influence of politicians. Some were "the

king's boroughs." Others obediently returned candidates of the Ministry in power. Others were "close boroughs" in the hands of jobbers like the Duke of Newcastle, who at one time returned one-third of all the borough members of the House of Commons. The counties and the great commercial towns could alone be said to exercise any real right of suffrage, though the enormous expense of contesting such constituencies practically left their representation in the hands of the great local families. But even in the counties the suffrage was very limited and unequal. In a population of eight millions of English people, only one hundred and sixty thousand had the right of suffrage.

We see how far such a House of Commons represented English public opinion from the fact that even so great a statesman as Pitt in the height of his popularity had great difficulty in finding a seat at all, and he only did find one at the hands of a great borough jobber like Lord Clive. The only way to enter Parliament was by purchasing a seat. Seats were bought and sold in the open market at prices as high as four thousand pounds. A few decades later the younger William Pitt declared with indignation: "This House is not the representative of the people of Great Britain. It is the representative of nominal boroughs, of ruined and exterminated towns, of noble families, of wealthy individuals, of foreign potentates."

The meanest motives naturally actuated a House of Commons returned by such constituencies, cut off from the influence of public opinion by the secresy of Parliamentary proceedings, and yet intrusted with almost unlimited authority. The Duke of Newcastle had made bribery and borough-jobbing the foundation of the power of the Whig party. King George III. now used the same means as the foundation of the power which he intended to give to the crown. The royal revenue was used to buy seats and to buy votes. The king daily examined the voting-list of the two Houses of Parliament, and distributed rewards and punishments as members voted in accordance with or against his will. "The king's friends" were the only ones rewarded with promotion in the civil service, preferment in the Church, or rank in the army. Pensions and court places were used to influence debates. Bribery was resorted to on a scale hitherto unknown. Under the Ministry of the Earl of Bute an office was opened at the Treasury for the bribery of members of Parliament, and twenty-five thousand pounds are said to have been paid in a single day.

The result of these corrupt practices was that the very Parliament which had hitherto bowed beneath Pitt's greatness approved the Peace of Paris in 1763 by a majority of five to one in the very face of Pitt's denunciations. Thereupon the Princess Dowager exclaimed: "Now, indeed, my son is king!" The English people had cared little for the abuses or corruptions of the House of Commons so long as the sentiment of that body fairly represented the sentiment of the nation at large, but the Great Commoner's defeat disclosed the existence of a peril of which the nation had never dreamed. The English people found themselves utterly powerless in the face of a legislative body which wielded the supreme authority in their name, but which had wholly ceased to represent the nation. The nation looked on helplessly in the face of all this corruption, conducted on a scale unparalleled in English history—a corruption which enabled the king to convert that branch of Parliament which was the guardian of public rights into a means for governing by his will. Thus public opinion had no means of expressing itself in Parliament, the body recognized as the constitutional expression of public opinion.

But the public opinion thus shut out from the House of Commons found its true representation and expression in the press, and newspapers now began to constitute a "Fourth Estate," which soon became more powerful than all the rest—King, Lords and Commons combined. The political power of the press began with the impulse which

Pitt had given to the national spirit and with the rise of a keener interest in politics. The press had undertaken to champion the cause of the greatly wronged people of England, and had become the recognized court of political appeal from the corrupt House of Commons, thus venturing to criticise the acts of the king, the Ministry and Parliament with a vigor which incensed the king as well as the Ministers, the Lords and the Commons.

The Peace of Paris was odious to the English people. John Wilkes, the editor of the *North Briton* and the member of the House of Commons for Aylesbury, denounced the treaty of peace with great vehemence and attacked the Earl of Bute for negotiating it, thus venturing for the first time to attack a Minister by name; and the public journals became the mouthpieces of a popular indignation which expressed itself in public disturbances and riots, and which soon arose to so high a degree that the Earl of Bute was obliged to resign in the very face of his unbroken majority.

King George III., who was as much frightened as his fallen Minister, and who saw that the time had not yet come for him to rule by his own partisans alone, then appealed to Pitt to form a new Ministry; but Pitt, although he had been betrayed by the Duke of Newcastle and his followers, saw clearly that without the support of the entire Whig party a Minister would be a mere instrument of the crown, as the Earl of Bute had been. The Great Commoner therefore refused to take the reins of office unless a purely Whig Ministry were appointed—a condition which the king refused to accept, as it would have defeated his purpose of dividing the Whig party.

Instead of forming a Ministry from the better faction of the Whig party, headed by the Marquis of Rockingham and the Cavendishes, who were supported by the commercial classes and who sustained Pitt, the king called upon George Grenville and the Duke of Bedford, the leaders of the smaller Whig faction which retained the narrow and selfish temper of a mere oligarchy, in whom every other feeling was overmastered by greed of power. Accordingly the Ministry of the Earl of Bute was succeeded by that of George Grenville, in the very year of the Peace of Paris, A. D. 1763.

Grenville's Ministry was marked by an attempt to muzzle the press and by an effort to assert the right of Parliament to tax the North American colonies—blows aimed at popular freedom in both England and America. Grenville was as unpopular as the Earl of Bute had been, and the press was soon filled with the most virulent libels from the several factions that divided the kingdom. Even His Majesty himself was assailed in these bitter political articles in the columns of the journals which opposed the Ministry.

At length, in 1764, the Ministry was aroused by an article in No. 45 of the *North Briton*, John Wilkes's journal, in which it was stated the king's speech to Parliament contained a deliberate falsehood. A general warrant was issued by the Secretary of State for the arrest of the editor, printers and publishers of the *North Briton*. Mr. Wilkes was arrested and sent to the Tower as a state prisoner, and several innocent persons were also taken into custody.

The Ministry soon found that in their eagerness to punish a delinquent they had raised a great constitutional question. Wilkes was a worthless profligate; and, but for the mistake of the Ministry in prosecuting him, he would have died in obscurity. The government's legalized persecution of him made him the representative of a great principle of English constitutional freedom —the liberty of the press; while it also enlisted popular sympathy on his side. By a strange irony of fortune he became the chief instrument in bringing about three of the greatest advances which the English Constitution has made since the Revolution of 1688.

This first struggle ended in the establishment of the freedom of the press. At a later period he aroused the English people to a conviction of the necessity of Parlia-

mentary reform by his defense of the rights of constituencies against the despotism of the House of Commons, and he led in the struggle which put an end to the secrecy of Parliamentary proceedings.

The printers of the *North Briton*, arrested under the warrant, brought action against the messengers by whom they had been arrested, and recovered heavy damages for illegal arrest. Mr. Wilkes was brought by a writ of habeas corpus before the Court of Common Pleas, but was liberated, the judges having unanimously decided that his commitment was illegal, as privilege of Parliament extended to the case of writing a libel and as the warrant did not name the person to be arrested, and was not issued by a magistrate, but by an officer of state. Wilkes recovered heavy damages against the government for illegal arrest and imprisonment.

The House of Commons gave a very different decision from that of the Court of Common Pleas by voting that No. 45 of the *North Briton* was "a false, scandalous and seditious libel," and that the author of such a production was not protected by privilege of Parliament. The House of Lords also voted that a certain pamphlet found among Wilkes's papers was blasphemous, and advised a prosecution therefor. The case of the article in No. 45 of the *North Briton* was still before the civil courts, Wilkes having been prosecuted therefor on the charge of libel. Soon afterward he fought a duel with Mr. Martin, whom he had also libeled, and was severely wounded.

As soon as Wilkes had recovered from his wound he retired to France, A. D. 1764. During his absence from England he was expelled from the House of Commons by a vote of that body, and was outlawed by the Court of King's Bench for not appearing to stand his trial on the charge of libel.

The assumption of arbitrary judicial power by both Houses of Parliament, and the system of terror which Prime Minister Grenville put in force against the press by issuing two hundred injunctions against various journals, roused a storm of indignation throughout England. The English people espoused the cause of Wilkes, as they regarded the proceedings against him as a violation of popular liberty. Every street resounded with the cry of "Wilkes and Liberty," and Grenville was obliged to succumb before this outburst of public sentiment. The result of the government's action against Mr. Wilkes was the declaration of the illegality of general warrants by a resolution of both Houses of Parliament, and no such warrant has ever since been issued.

The Grenville ministry, which had attempted to throttle the press and thus aroused public sentiment against it in England, with equal recklessness excited the indignation of the English colonists in North America by carrying the famous Stamp Act through Parliament, as we shall see more fully hereafter. So unpopular had the Grenville administration become that it was forced to resign in 1765; and after another unsuccessful effort on the king's part to induce Pitt to form a new ministry, the Marquis of Rockingham and the whig faction which he headed, undertook the reins of government in July, 1765. The new ministry secured the repeal of the Stamp Act in March, 1766.

In the summer of 1766 Pitt succeeded the Marquis of Rockingham as Prime Minister, and became a member of the House of Lords with the title of Earl of Chatham. Pitt sought to do justice to Ireland and the American colonies, to inaugurate Parliamentary reform in England, and to secure the transfer of the government of British India from the East India Company to the British crown; but he was obliged to retire from public affairs by ill-health occasioned by nervous prostration; and, as most of his friends followed him in his retirement, his efforts to reunite the Whig party thus came to naught.

After a series of changes, a new Ministry was formed of the worst faction of the Whigs and of the new Tory party known as the "king's friends." Thus George III. had finally reached his aim in the forma-

tion of a "King's Ministry," whose strength lay in the disorganization of the Whig party and the king's steady support. This Ministry lasted fourteen years, from 1768 to 1782, and was under the leadership of the Duke of Grafton during the first two years, and during the remaining twelve years under the guidance of Lord North, who was thus Prime Minister during the whole period of the War of American Independence.

For the time Pitt was removed from public life and discredited. His championship of the rights of the American colonists had caused the king to style him "a trumpet of sedition." The Whig party was rent into the two factions under the respective leadership of the Marquis of Rockingham and the Duke of Bedford. The faction under the Duke of Bedford and George Grenville had places in the "King's Ministry," and their Parliamentary support lay in the "king's friends" and the Tory party, who were the submissive instruments of the royal will. The king's influence was preëminent when the Duke of Grafton was Prime Minister, and supreme during the Premiership of Lord North, who was the king's mere mouthpiece.

Says a careful observer concerning the king: "Not only did he direct the Minister in all important matters of foreign and domestic policy, but he instructed him as to the management of debates in Parliament, suggested what motions should be made or opposed, and how measures should be carried. He reserved for himself all the patronage, he arranged the whole cast of the administration, settled the relative place and pretensions of Ministers of State, law officers and members of the household, nominated and promoted the English and Scotch judges, appointed and translated bishops and deans, and dispensed other preferments in the Church. He disposed of military governments, regiments and commissions, and himself ordered the marching of troops. He gave and refused titles, honors and pensions."

All this immense patronage was steadily used for the creation and maintenance of the king's party in both Houses of Parliament, and the king's influence was perceived in the dependence to which his compliant Ministry was reduced; so that George III. was really sole Minister during the fifteen years which followed the organization of this Ministry—this darkest hour of modern English history, when England lost her most flourishing colonies through the arbitrary conduct of this obstinate king and his subservient Ministers.

As Grenville's Ministry had done, the "King's Ministry," at the instigation of the king himself, renewed the struggle with public opinion in England and with the English colonists in North America. As we have seen, the corrupt House of Commons had failed in its efforts to gag the press and to transform itself into a supreme court of justice. It now began the most glaring outrage on the rights of an English constituency.

As the legal term of this corrupt Parliament had almost expired, it was dissolved in 1768, and writs were issued for the election of a new House of Commons. Wilkes returned from France and offered himself as a candidate for Parliament from Middlesex, and was elected by an overwhelming majority. His election was virtually a public condemnation of the House of Commons. The Ministry shrank from a renewal of the struggle with the agitator; but King George III., who was eager for the contest, wrote to Lord North: "I think it highly expedient to apprise you that the expulsion of Mr. Wilkes appears to be very essential, and must be effected." The Ministry and the House of Commons bowed to the royal will.

After his election Wilkes surrendered himself to the Court of King's Bench; and that tribunal reversed its sentence of outlawry against him, but sentenced him to pay a fine of a thousand pounds and to be imprisoned for twenty-two months. As the English people considered him a martyr in the cause of popular liberty, a subscription was opened to pay his fine, to support him during his imprisonment, and to compound his debts, which amounted to more than

twenty thousand pounds. Dangerous riots broke out in London and throughout the kingdom, but the government defied public sentiment.

When the new Parliament convened, the populace of London thought that Wilkes would be released from prison to take his seat in the House of Commons; and a vast multitude assembled in St. George's Fields, round the King's Bench prison, for the purpose of conducting him to the House of Commons. The Surrey justices took the alarm and read the Riot Act; but, as the crowd refused to disperse, the military were called out and ordered to fire. One man was killed outright, and many were wounded, several fatally. This outrage created intense indignation, especially as a Scotch regiment had been employed in the shooting. The various coroner's inquests returned verdicts of wilful murder against the soldiery, and on the trials which occurred afterward several of the soldiers were convicted of murder.

The government defied the popular feeling by granting pardons to the soldiers who had been found guilty of murder; and the Secretary of State, Lord Weymouth, sent a letter to the Surrey justices thanking them for their spirited conduct. Mr. Wilkes published Lord Weymouth's document in his journal with an indignant commentary, terming the shooting affray "a horrid massacre," and adding a virulent invective against the entire conduct of the government. Wilkes was expelled from the House of Commons for this publication on the charge of libel.

The freeholders of Middlesex unanimously reëlected Mr. Wilkes at the beginning of 1769. This defiance of the electors of Middlesex led the House of Commons a step farther; and it resolved, "That Mr. Wilkes, having been in this session of Parliament expelled the House, was and is incapable of being elected a member to serve in the present Parliament." The House issued a writ for another election. In answer to this insolent claim to limit the free choice of a constituency, Middlesex elected Wilkes for the third time; and the House of Commons vented its rage in a new and more outrageous usurpation by again expelling him. He was elected for the fourth time by an immense majority of the voters of Middlesex, the vote standing eleven hundred and forty-three for Wilkes and two hundred and sixty-nine for his opponent, Colonel Luttrell; but the House of Commons voted that Colonel Luttrell ought to have been elected, and that he was the sitting member for Middlesex.

By its own arbitrary discretion the House of Commons had limited the free election of the constituency of Middlesex, and had also transferred the rights of that constituency to itself by seating Luttrell as a member in defiance of the deliberate choice of Wilkes by the freeholders of Middlesex. The English people at once rose indignantly against this violation of constitutional law, as they justly considered it a fatal blow at the liberties of the subject. Petitions and remonstrances of the boldest nature poured into Parliament from all parts of England; and the press was filled with virulent attacks on all constituted authorities, some even going so far as to deny the legality of the existing Parliament and the obligation of the people to obey the laws which it enacted. Wilkes was elected an Alderman of one of the wards of London; and the Lord Mayor, the Aldermen and the Livery petitioned the king to dissolve Parliament. A remonstrance from London and Westminster asserted that "there is a time when it is clearly demonstrable that men cease to be representatives. That time is now arrived. The House of Commons do not represent the people."

An anonymous journalist named "Junius," attacked the government in his celebrated *Letters*, which were characterized by their rancorous and unscrupulous tone, and by the superior brilliancy of their style, by their clearness and terseness of statement, and by the terrible vigor of their invective, thus giving a new power to the literature of the press. George III. obstinately defied

public sentiment. "Junius" was prosecuted, and the petitions and remonstrances of London were haughtily rejected; but the failure of the prosecution of "Junius" established the right of the press to criticise the conduct of Parliament and Ministers and even of the sovereign himself.

Early in 1770 William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, so far recovered his health that he reappeared in the House of Lords, where he at once denounced the usurpations of the Commons and introduced a bill declaring those usurpations illegal. But his genius soon made him perceive that such outrages really owed their existence to the fact that the House of Commons no longer represented the people of England. He therefore introduced a plan for the reform of that House by an increase of its county members. He could go no farther, as he was almost alone in the proposals which he made. Even the Whig faction under the Marquis of Rockingham were opposed to Parlimentary reform, and shrank with haughty disdain from the popular agitation in which public opinion was forced to express itself—an agitation which the Earl of Chatham deliberately encouraged, although he censured its extravagance.

These quarrels between Wilkes and the House of Commons were the beginning of the influence of public meetings on English politics. The gatherings of the Middlesex electors in support of Wilkes were the preludes to the great meetings of the Yorkshire freeholders which gave the question of Parliamentary reform its importance; and the power of political agitation first made itself felt in England in the movement for Parliamentary reform and in the establishment of committees of correspondence throughout the kingdom for the purpose of promoting that reform. Political societies and clubs became prominent in the creation and organization of public opinion; and the spread of political discussion, along with the influence now beginning to be exercised by the appearance of many men in support of any political movement, made it evident that Parliament would soon be obliged to reckon with the sentiments of the English people at large.

But the force of public opinion was brought to bear on Parliament itself by an agent far more effective than popular agitation. The secrecy of Parliamentary proceedings, which was the source of so much of the corruption of the House of Commons, was more difficult to preserve as the English people awoke to a greater interest in their public affairs. The debates in Parliament had been hitherto printed surreptitiously, as their publication was deemed a breach of privilege. The public interest in the debates on the Middlesex election induced the printers to act more boldly.

In 1771 a formal complaint was made in the House of Commons; and that body issued a proclamation forbidding the publication of its debates, and summoned six printers who set this proclamation at defiance to appear at the bar of the House. One printer who refused to appear was arrested by the messenger of the House of Commons; but the printer sent for a constable, who took both before the Lord Mayor of London, Mr. Crosby. The Lord Mayor and Aldermen Wilkes and Oliver set aside the proclamation of the House of Commons as without legal force, discharged the printer, and required the messenger to furnish bail or go to prison on a charge of illegal arrest. The House of Commons received the news of these proceedings of the London magistrates with the most violent indignation, sent Lord Mayor Crosby and Alderman Oliver to imprisonment in the Tower, and summoned Wilkes to appear at the bar of the House. The cheers of the crowds which followed the Lord Mayor to the Tower showed that public opinion was again on the side of the press; and, as Wilkes refused to appear at the bar of the House of Commons unless he were permitted to take his seat for Middlesex, the House compromised its dignity by ordering him to attend on the 8th of April, and then adjourning to the 9th.

Since that event no attempt has been made to prevent the publication of the Parlia-

mentary debates, which now constitute the most important and the most interesting feature in the periodical press. Few changes have been so quietly brought about. The responsibility of members of Parliament to their constituents was made constant and effective by the publication of their proceedings, and the English nation itself was called in to aid in the deliberations of its representatives. The English people at large were roused to a new and wider interest in public affairs, and the discussion of every subject of national importance in Parliament and in the press gave them a new political education. All phases of public opinion, as represented by the public journals, became a force in practical statesmanship, influenced the course of Parliamentary debates, and controlled the actions of the Ministry in a closer and more constant manner than even Parliament itself had been able to do.

The press obtained an influence from the importance of its new position which it had never had before, and the first great English newspapers took their rise during this period. Journalism took a new tone of responsibility and intelligence with the rise of such great London papers as the *Morning Chronicle*, the *Morning Post*, the *Morning Herald* and the *Times*. The London *Times* —the greatest newspaper of the world—was founded January 1, 1788. Journalists of high moral temper and high literary excellence thereafter influenced British public opinion through their columns.

COLONIAL TAXATION.

Democratic ideas had a slow and steady, but solid, growth in England's North American colonies from the time of the establishment of those colonies. Those who left their homes in Europe to settle in the New World were animated with a desire for the enjoyment of pure civil, political and religious freedom. The republican spirit of the English American colonists was manifested in popular resistance to obnoxious acts of the British Parliament, and to the tyranny of the royal governors sent from England to America to administer the government of the colonies. The claim of the English Parliament to legislate for the colonies was boldly denied by the colonists, who finally rebelled against the mother country, and, after a war of seven years, achieved their political independence and established a democratic republic under the name of *The United States of America.*

The long wars against France oppressed England with an enormous debt and exhausted the British treasury; and the Imperial Government resolved to procure money from the North American colonies by either direct or indirect taxation, on the plea that the French and Indian War had been undertaken by England for the protection of her colonies, and that therefore it was not more than right that the colonists should bear some part of the expense of that struggle. The colonists denied the right of the Imperial Parliament to tax them, as they were not allowed any representation in that body, and maintained that "Taxation without representation is tyranny."

The British Government first attempted to exercise the asserted right to tax the colonies by issuing search-warrants to persons appointed by the king to enforce the revenue laws. These warrants, called *Writs of Assistance*, authorized the government officials in the colonies to search for suspected goods which had been imported into the colonies, and on which the duty had not been paid. The colonists firmly resisted this encroachment on their liberties. The legality of the writs was boldly denied by the Americans; and in February, 1761, the matter was brought before the General Court in Boston, where James Otis, then Advocate-General of the colonies, and an able lawyer, appeared on the side of the American people, and denied the right of the Imperial Parliament to tax the colonies without their consent.

In February, 1765, George Grenville, who was then at the head of the British Ministry, introduced into Parliament a bill requiring the Anglo-American colonists to purchase for specified sums, and to place on all

written documents, stamps furnished by the British Imperial Government. This was a measure which no former British Ministry had the courage to attempt. The passage of this bill, known as the *Stamp Act*, in 1765, produced universal indignation in America. Most of the colonial legislatures passed resolutions denouncing the measure, and James Otis in Massachusetts and Patrick Henry in Virginia thundered forth eloquent denunciations of the act.

part of some bold resolutions which Henry had introduced were adopted; and the colonists were aroused to a firm stand to defend their rights, and the determination was made to resist the execution of the odius Stamp Act. Associations called *Sons of Liberty* were formed; and the stamps were seized on their arrival in the colonies, and secreted or burned. The officers, called "Stamp Distributors," who had been appointed to sell the stamps, were so much despised and in-

PATRICK HENRY.

While speaking in the Virginia Assembly, at Richmond, of the fate of tyrants of former periods, Patrick Henry exclaimed: "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I. his Cromwell, and George III."—Here the speaker was interrupted by cries of "Treason! treason!" from some of the members; and Mr. Henry, after pausing a moment, said: "May profit by their example. If that be treason, make the most of it." A

sulted that they soon relinquished their business; and on the day appointed for the Stamp Act to go into effect, there was not an officer who had the courage to attempt the enforcement of the law.

A convention of delegates, known as the *Stamp Act Congress*, assembled in New York City on the 7th of October, 1765. This convention, or congress, which was in session fourteen days, drew up a *Declara-*

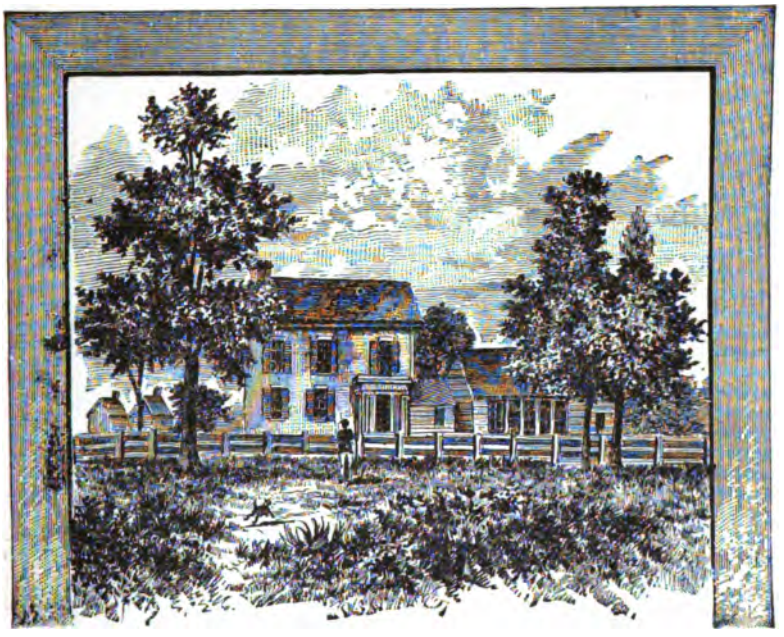
tion of Rights which denied the right of Parliament to tax the colonies, and adopted a petition to the king and memorials to Parliament. On the 1st of November, 1765, the appointed day for the Stamp Act to go into effect, universal silence prevailed in English America; all business was suspended; the courts were closed; the bells were muffled and tolled; and the vessels in the harbors displayed their flags at half-mast. Suddenly the Anglo-Americans manifested their indignation in an open disregard

PATRICK HENRY ADDRESSING THE VIRGINIA ASSEMBLY.

of the law. The houses of British officials in American cities were assailed by mobs, and loyalists were burned in effigy. The colonists agreed to import no more goods from the mother country until the obnoxious law should be repealed. As we have seen, the Grenville Ministry had been succeeded by another Whig Ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham in July, 1765.

The determination of American merchants not to import British goods into America alarmed the British merchants so much that they united with the colonists in petitioning Parliament to repeal the Stamp Act. The new British Ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham found that it must either compel the colonists to submission, or have the odious act repealed. After long and angry debates in Parliament the act was repealed on the 6th of March, 1766. The repeal was hailed with manifestations of joy in both England and America. The colonists testified their gratitude to William Pitt and Edmund Burke, the great friends and champions of the Americans in Parliament. Other friends of the Americans were John Wilkes and Colonel Barre, whose two names were given to the town of Wilkes-Barre, in Pennsylvania.

Pitt said in a speech in the House of Commons: "In my opinion this kingdom has no right to lay a tax on the colonies * * * America is obstinate! America is almost in open rebellion! Sir, I rejoice that America has resisted. Three millions of people so dead to all feelings of liberty as voluntarily to submit to be slaves would have been fit instruments to make slaves of the rest."



SEAT OF PATRICK HENRY.
[From a picture in Howe's Historical Collections of Virginia.]

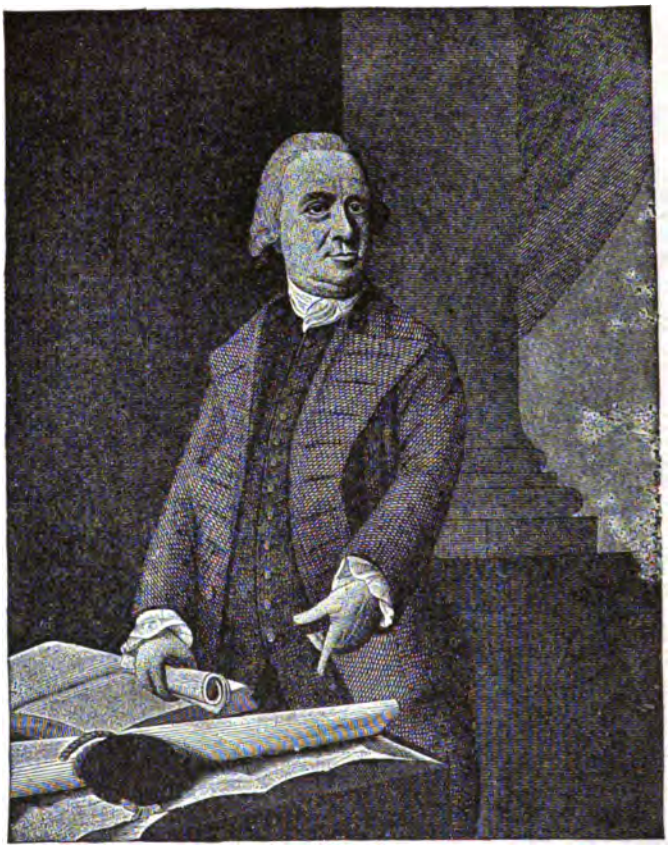
In the House of Lords, Lord Camden said in the course of a speech in favor of the repeal of the Stamp Act: "Taxation and representation are inseparably united. God has joined them. No British Parliament can separate them. This position I repeat, and will maintain to my last hour. It is founded on the law of nature. It is itself an eternal law of nature."

The fires of discord were soon kindled anew. For the purpose of securing the repeal of the Stamp Act, Pitt had accompanied the repeal with a *Declaratory Act*, which as-

serted that Parliament had "the right to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever."

Under the sanction of the Declaratory Act, the British Parliament passed new acts as obnoxous in principle to the Anglo-Americans as the Stamp Act had been. To intimidate the colonists, British troops were sent to America in June, 1766; and Parliament passed a *Mutiny Act*, requiring the colonists to furnish food and in that colony with food or quarters. These tyrannical measures highly exaspered the Americans.

New non-importation leagues were now formed in the colonies; and pamphlets and newspapers instigated the American people to oppose the oppressive measures of the British Ministry and Parliament. In February, 1768, the Massachusetts Assembly issued a *Circular Letter* to the assemblies



SAMUEL ADAMS.

shelter to these royal troops. In June, 1767, a tax was imposed on several articles imported into the colonies. In July of the same year an act was passed creating a board of trade and commissioners of customs in the colonies, independent of the colonial assemblies; and another act was passed which suspended the legislative power of the Assembly of New York, because that body had refused to supply the royal troops of the other Anglo-American colonies, soliciting their coöperation in endeavors to procure a redress of grievances; and before the close of the year almost every colonial assembly had asserted that the Imperial Parliament had no right to legislate for the colonies. The British Ministry, highly exasperated at this boldness, ordered the Massachusetts Assembly, in the name of the king, to rescind the Circular Letter; but

the Assembly, by an almost unanimous vote, refused to rescind. James Otis and Samuel Adams were the principal leaders of the Assembly on this occasion.

The new commissioners of customs, who arrived in Boston, in May, 1768, were detested by the colonists. In June, 1768, the commissioners seized a sloop belonging to John Hancock, because that individual had refused to pay the duty on the cargo on the arrival of the vessel. When the seizure had become known, the commissioners were assailed by a mob and compelled to flee for refuge to Castle William (now Fort Independence), in Boston harbor.

At the call of Bernard, the royal governor of Massachusetts, seven hundred royal troops, under General Thomas Gage, were brought to Boston, in order to frighten the people into submission. On a quiet Sunday in September, 1768, these troops entered the city, with charged muskets and fixed bayonets, with drums beating and flags flying, and with all the insolence of a conquering army taking possession of a captured city. As the indignant Bostonians refused to furnish the troops who had been sent among them as instruments of slavery with provisions or quarters, Governor Bernard caused some of them to be quartered in the State House, some in Faneuil Hall, and others in tents on the city common. Early in 1769 the British Parliament revived an old law of the time of Henry VIII., which required the Governor of Massachusetts to send the leaders of the late disturbances in Boston to England for trial on a charge of treason.

The exasperated people of Boston could with difficulty be restrained from committing acts of violence. The soldiers and citizens quarreled almost daily; and on the 2d of March, 1770, several citizens were beaten by some of the troops. This created great excitement among the inhabitants; and on the evening of the 5th (March, 1770) several hundred collected in the streets for the avowed purpose of driving the troops from the city. A fight ensued, in which three of the citizens were killed and two badly wounded. The mob retired before the troops. The city bells rang an alarum, and very soon several thousand of the citizens assembled under arms. Governor Hutchinson made his appearance, and appeased the excited people by promising that justice should be rendered in the morning. At the demand of the Bostonians, the soldiers were removed from the city; and Captain Preston and eight of the troops, who had fired on the mob, were tried for murder. The captain and six of the troops were acquitted. The other two were found guilty of manslaughter. Those Bostonians who were killed in the riot were considered martyrs to liberty; and "The Boston Massacre," as the affray was called, was for many years kept alive by anniversary orations in Boston and its vicinity.

The disturbances in America, and the complaints of the British merchants, whose interests were injured by the operation of the American non-importation leagues, induced the British Ministry to propose, on the very day of the Boston Massacre, the repeal of all the obnoxious tax laws, except the duty on tea. The tax on tea was retained for the double purpose of aiding the English East-India Company and maintaining the right of the Imperial Parliament to tax the colonies. Lord North, who was then Prime-Minister of Great Britain, not comprehending the fact that the colonists were contending for a great principle, and that they considered the imposition, by the British Parliament, of a tax on a single article as a stroke at their liberties just as much as if a hundred articles were taxed, believed that they would not complain of a small duty on one article of luxury. The Anglo-Americans therefore continued their non-importation leagues against the purchase and use of tea.

In 1771 the exactions of British government officials produced rebellion in the interior of North Carolina. The insurgents, whose object was to redress the grievances of the people, called themselves *Regulators*. In a bloody skirmish on the Alamance Creek, on the 16th of May, 1771,

the Regulators were conquered by Governor Tryon, and six of their number were hanged for treason; but the spirit of opposition among the people was not crushed, and was frequently manifested in popular outbreaks. On the 9th of June, 1772, a party of sixty-four armed men from Providence, Rhode Island, burned the British schooner *Gaspé*, which had run aground while cruising in Narraganset bay for the purpose of enforcing the revenue laws.

dignation so much the more, and they refused to receive a cargo of tea. Governor Hutchinson of Massachusetts, in defiance of the popular will, ordered the landing of several cargoes which arrived at Boston in December, 1773. The people of Boston held meetings in Faneuil Hall, and resolved that no tea should be landed; and on the night of the 16th of December, 1773, a party of about sixty men, disguised as Indians, went on board of the tea-ships and broke

THE BOSTON MASSACRE, MARCH 5, 1770.

As the Americans refused to use or purchase tea so long as a duty remained on that article, Lord North, who was still unwilling to relinquish the right of Parliament to tax the colonies, agreed to permit the East-India Company to send over their tea on terms that would make it cheaper in America than in England. This attempt to bribe the colonists into submission by means of cheap tea only aroused their indignation so much the more, and they refused to receive a cargo of tea. Governor Hutchinson of Massachusetts, in defiance of the popular will, ordered the landing of several cargoes which arrived at Boston in December, 1773. The people of Boston held meetings in Faneuil Hall, and resolved that no tea should be landed; and on the night of the 16th of December, 1773, a party of about sixty men, disguised as Indians, went on board of the tea-ships and broke open three hundred and forty-two chests of tea and emptied their contents into the waters of the harbor.

So highly exasperated at the destruction of tea in Boston harbor was the British Ministry that it resolved upon retaliatory measures. On the 7th of March, 1774, Parliament passed an act called the *Boston Port Bill*, which ordered the port of Boston to be closed against all commerce and removed

the seat of the colonial government of Massachusetts to Salem. Another act was passed on the 28th (March, 1774), which virtually subverted the colonial charter of Massachusetts. This was followed by another act on the 21st of April, providing for the trial in England of any person charged with murder in the colonies in support of the imperial government. A fourth act authorized the quartering of royal troops in the colonies; and a fifth conceded great privileges to the Roman Catholics in the newly-acquired province of Canada. These tyrannical measures aroused the most intense indignation in America, which was increased when General Thomas Gage, who had just been appointed Governor of Massachusetts, went to Boston with troops to enforce the obnoxious acts of Parliament. Under his direction the port of Boston was closed on the 1st of June, 1774.

FANEUIL HALL, BOSTON.

Committees of Correspondence had been formed in some of the colonies in 1773. These committees were diligent in their work of uniting the colonies by an interchange of views and intelligence. The Anglo-American colonists were now divided into two parties. The few who sustained the British Government were called *Tories;* and the great body of the American people, who opposed the despotic measures of the government, were called *Whigs.*

Soon after the closing of the port of Boston, the Assembly of Massachusetts met at Salem, and issued an invitation to the other Anglo-American colonies to elect delegates, who should meet in a Continental Congress in Philadelphia in September following. This invitation was accepted; and the First Continental Congress convened in Carpenter's Hall, in Philadelphia, on the 5th of September, 1774. All the colonies, with the exception of Georgia, were represented. The Congress chose for its president Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, and for its secretary, Charles Thomson, of Pennsylvania. The Congress approved the conduct of Massachusetts in her opposition to the oppressive measures of the British Ministry and Parliament; agreed upon a *Declaration of Rights;* recommended non-intercourse with Great Britain so long as the obnoxious laws of Parliament remained unrepealed; and voted a petition to the king and an address to the people of Great Britain and Canada; after which they adjourned, to meet on the

ensuing 10th of May (1775), unless the British Government should in the meantime redress the grievances complained of by the colonists.

During the summer of 1774 the people of English America, and particularly those of Massachusetts, were earnestly preparing for the inevitable struggle with the mother country. They engaged daily in military exercises, chose leaders, and held themselves ready to fly to arms at a moment's warning. On this account they were called *Minute-men*. Martial exercises continued throughout the ensuing autumn and winter, and public speakers everywhere encouraged the colonists to resist the tyrannical measures of the British Parliament. General Gage, Governor of Massachusetts, and British commander-in-chief in America, becoming alarmed, fortified Boston Neck, and seized great quantities of ammunition found in the New England colonies. A false rumor, which spread over New England in September (1774), that British warships were cannonading Boston, produced such excitement that within two days thirty thousand armed men were on their way to that city. In October the Assembly of Massachusetts convened at Cambridge, and resolved itself into a Provincial Congress, with John Hancock as president, and made provisions for raising an army.

As the British Parliament, early in 1775, rejected a conciliatory measure proposed by Mr. Pitt, and passed an act prohibiting the colonists from fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, thus striking a severe blow at the prosperity of New England, the colonists saw that they must either defend their rights and liberties by force of arms, or slavishly submit to the oppressive acts of Parliament. They chose the former alternative; and, relying upon the justice of their cause and the aid of an All-Ruling Providence, they resolved to bid defiance to the military and naval power of Great Britain.

THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

On the 1st of April, 1775, there were three thousand British troops in Boston; and on the night of the 18th General Gage sent eight hundred troops, under Lieutenant-Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn, to destroy the stores of ammunition which the colonists had gathered at Concord, about sixteen miles north-west from Boston. Although this movement was made secretly, the people were aroused by the vigilant Dr. Joseph Warren and Paul Revere, who had obtained a knowledge of the designs of Gage; and when, on the morning of the 19th (April, 1775), Pitcairn, approached the village of Lexington, six miles from Concord, he found eighty armed Minute-men ready to oppose him. Pitcairn riding forward, exclaimed: "Disperse you rebels! lay down your arms and disperse!" And when they refused obedience, his troops, according to his orders, fired upon the patriots, killing eight of them. This was the first bloodshed in the great *American Revolution*. After the short skirmish at Lexington, the British immediately proceeded to Concord, killed several more Minute-men in a skirmish there, and destroyed the stores of ammunition. The king's troops then hastily retreated to Boston, fired upon along the whole route of their retreat by the people from behind trees, stone-fences and buildings; and by the time they reached Boston, in the afternoon of the same day (April 19, 1775), they had lost in killed and wounded two hundred and seventy-three men, while the American loss was only one hundred and three men. The intelligence of the bloodshed at Lexington and Concord produced the greatest excitement throughout the Anglo-American colonies, and everywhere aroused the colonists to action. Before the close of April a patriot army of twenty thousand men was surrounding the British troops in Boston, and before the close of summer the power of every royal governor from Massachusetts to Georgia was at an end.

On the 10th of May, 1775, some New Hampshire militia, under Colonel Ethan Allen, seized Fort Ticonderoga. Entering the fort, Allen demanded its surrender.

The commandant asked: "By what authority?" Allen replied: "By the authority of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress." Two days later (May 12, 1775) Colonel Benedict Arnold, with Connecticut militia, took possession of Crown Point. With the capture of these two fortresses, the Americans obtained forty pieces of artillery, and secured the command of Lake Champlain, thus opening the way for an invasion of Canada. A Committee of Safety, appointed by the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, held its sittings in Cambridge, regulated military operations, and appointed General Artemas Ward comander-in-chief of the provincial forces, and Richard Gridley chief engineer. On the 25th of May, 1775, large reinforcements for General Gage arrived from England, under the command of Generals William Howe, Henry Clinton and John Burgoyne. The British army in Boston, thus increased to twelve thousand men, prepared to drive the rebellious provincials from the vicinity of the city. Gage issued a proclamation declaring all Americans in arms to be rebels and traitors, and offering an amnesty to all who would submit to British authority, except Samuel Adams and John Hancock, whom he intended to seize and send to England to be hanged.

On the night of the 16th of June, 1775, General Artemas Ward sent one thousand provincial troops, under Colonel William Prescott, to take possession of and fortify Bunker's Hill, in Charlestown. By mistake, in the darkness of the night, Prescott and his troops ascended Breed's Hill, on which they erected a strong redoubt before morning. When the astonished British commanders saw this redoubt on the morning of the 17th (June, 1775) they opened upon it from Copp's Hill, in Boston, and from the ships-of-war in the harbor, a fierce cannonade which continued until noon with little effect. The Americans had received a reinforcement of five hundred troops during the forenoon, thus increasing their force in the redoubt to fifteen hundred men. About noon three thousand British troops, under Generals Howe and Pigot, crossed the Charles river from Boston and marched up the hill to attack the redoubt, firing cannon as they ascended. When the British column had approached within ten rods of the redoubt Colonel Prescott gave the order to fire,

ROBERT NEWMAN HANGING LANTERN IN THE TOWER.
EQUESTRIAN STATUE OF REVERE.
REVERE CROSSING THE RIVER CHARLES.

which his troops executed with such terrible effect that the advancing enemy were driven back with heavy loss. The time; and the battle raged fiercely, until the Americans, having exhausted all their ammunition, were driven from the redoubt and

BUNKER HILL MONUMENT.

British again advanced and assailed the redoubt, but met with a second disastrous repulse. They ascended the hill a third compelled to retreat across Charlestown Neck. As the Americans retreated, one of their number, the heroic General Joseph

Warren, was shot dead. The British took possession of and fortified Bunker's Hill, while the Americans intrenched themselves on Prospect Hill. The Americans lost four hundred and fifty men in killed, wounded and missing; while the British lost one thousand and fifty-four. During the battle Charlestown was set on fire by order of General Gage, and five hundred houses were destroyed. Although fought on Breed's Hill, this memorable engagement, which was the first real battle of the War of the American revolution, is known as the *Battle of Bunker Hill.*

In the meantime, while the events just related were occurring in New England, the Revolution was progressing rapidly in the Southern colonies. In the Virginia Assembly, at Richmond, Patrick Henry concluded a masterly speech with the words: "Give me Liberty, or give me Death!" When Lord Dunmore, the royal governor of Virginia, seized a quantity of powder belonging to the colony, the patriot Henry demanded and obtained full indemnity; and Dunmore was forced to seek refuge on a British man-of-war in Norfolk harbor. In May, 1775, a convention of delegates, sitting at Charlotte, Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, declared their constituents absolved from all allegiance to the British crown. This is known as the *Mecklenburg Declaration.*

In the meantime, while English America was in one blaze of excitement over the events at Lexington and Concord, the Second Continental Congress assembled in Philadelphia on the 10th of May, 1775. Although expressing its desire for a reconciliation with the mother country, the Congress voted to raise an army of twenty thousand men; and on the 15th of June, 1775, that body elected George Washington, a delegate from Virginia, commander-in-chief of all the forces raised, or to be raised, for the defense of American liberty. On the 3d of July, 1775, Washington took command of the American army at Cambridge. With this force, numbering fourteen thousand men, Washington began a siege of Boston, which was still occupied by the British army under General William Howe.

During the summer of 1775 some New England and New York troops, under General Philip Schuyler, went down Lake Champlain. Owing to illness, Schuyler was obliged to relinquish the command of his troops to General Richard Montgomery, who, on the 3d of November, captured St. Johns, on the Sorel or Richelieu river, after a siege of more than a month. While the siege of St. John was progressing, Colonel Ethan Allen, who, with eighty men, had attacked Montreal on the 25th of September, was made a prisoner and carried to England in irons. Colonel Bedell, with some American troops, captured Chambly; and, on the 13th of November, Montgomery took possession of Montreal.

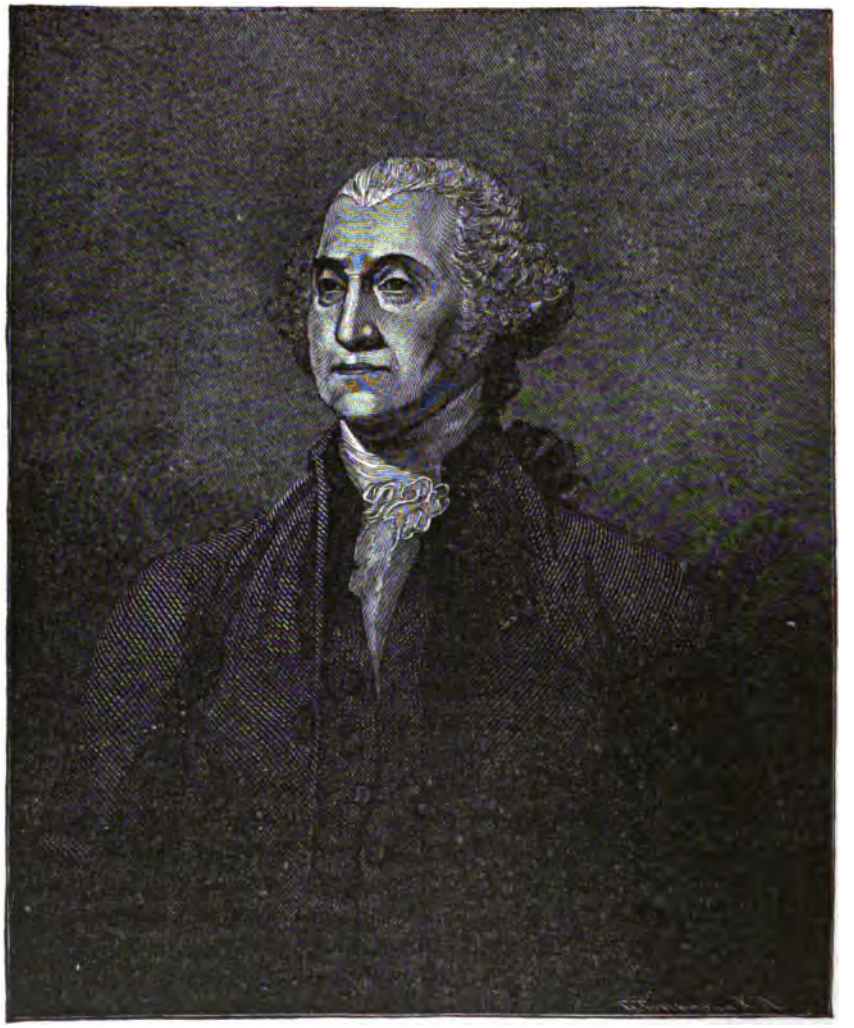
At Point au Trembles, twenty miles above Montreal, Montgomery was joined by seven hundred and fifty Americans under Colonel Benedict Arnold, who had left Cambridge, Massachusetts, in September, 1775, and marched along the Kennebec and Chaudiere rivers to the St. Lawrence, suffering almost incredible hardships on the way. On the 5th of December the American forces, under Montgomery and Arnold, laid siege to Quebec. For three weeks the Americans had besieged Quebec, when, on the 31st of December (1775), they attempted to take the city by assault. Montgomery was killed and Arnold wounded, and their troops were repulsed with great loss. In the month of June, 1776, the American invaders were entirely driven out of Canada.

While the Americans were suffering misfortunes in Canada, the Virginians were prosecuting the Revolution with zeal and success. Governor Dunmore, at the head of a force of Tories and negroes, ravaged South-eastern Virginia, but was repulsed in an attack upon Hampton on the 24th of October (1775); and, after proclaiming open war, he was defeated by the Virginia militia in a severe battle near the Dismal Swamp, twelve miles from Norfolk. For the pur-

pose of revenging himself upon the rebellious Virginians, Dunmore burned the city of Norfolk on the first of January, 1776; but, after committing other atrocities on the sea-board, he was finally driven away and went to England.

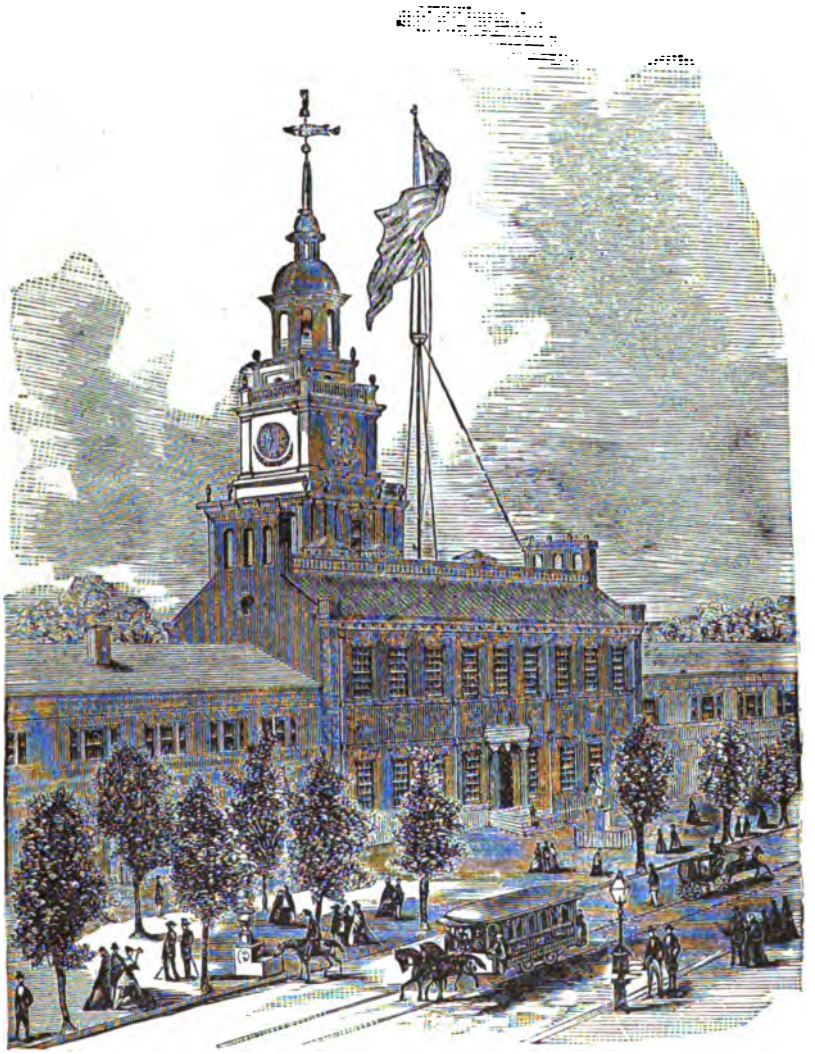
Early in 1776 the British government hired seventeen thousand Hessians from Germany to subdue the revolted colonists. The employment of these hirelings was severely denounced by Lord Camden, the Earl of Shelburne and the Duke of Richmond in the House of Lords, and by Lord John Cavendish in the House of Commons.

As the British Government early in 1776 made extensive arrangements to crush the rebellion against its authority in North America, the Continental Congress urged General Washington to attack the British army under General Howe in Boston. On the evening of the 2d of March, 1776, Washington, having fourteen thousand men under his command, opened a heavy cannonade upon the British works around that city; and on the night of the 4th a portion of Washington's army, under General John Thomas, intrenched itself upon Dorchester Heights, now South Boston. The



GENERAL WASHINGTON.

siege continued until the 17th, when Howe and his troops were allowed to evacuate the city. The British army sailed to Halifax, in Nova Scotia, with the families of fifteen hundred Tories; and Washington's army immediately took possession of the city, to the great joy of its delivered inhabitants.



INDEPENDENCE HALL—THE OLD STATE HOUSE IN PHILADELPHIA.

During the winter General Charles Lee had been sent by Washington to take command of troops for the defense of New York against any attack which might be made upon that city by Sir Henry Clinton, who had left Boston in January with a part of Howe's army. After the evacuation of Boston, Washington proceeded to the Hudson, and fortified the passes of the Highlands.

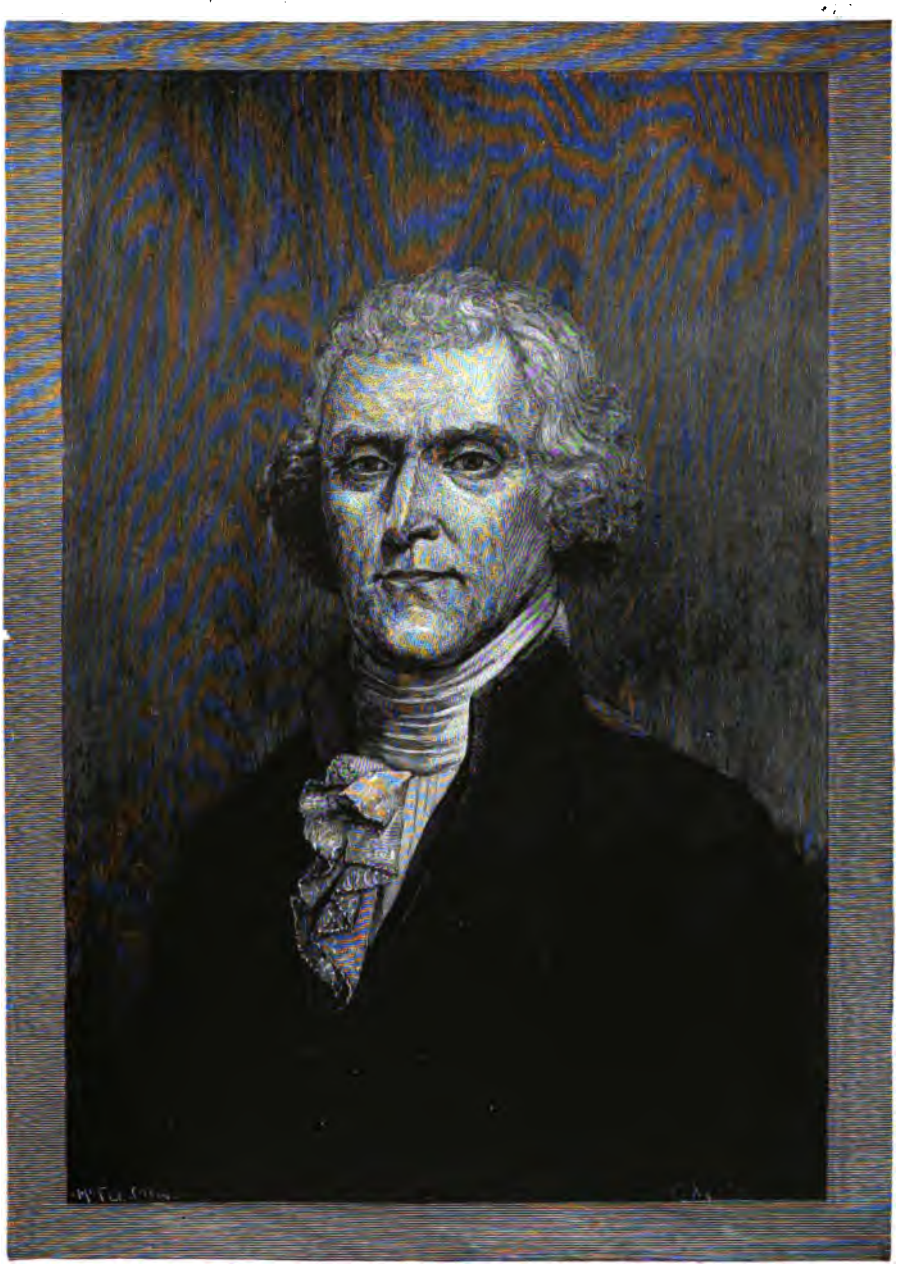
In the meantime Sir Henry Clinton, with British land troops, in conjunction with a fleet from England under Sir Peter Parker, was on his way to attack Charleston, South Carolinia. The South Carolinians made ample preparations to defend their chief city against any attack of the enemy. On Sullivan's Island, near the city, a fort was built of palmetto logs, and garrisoned by five hundred Americans under the gallant Colonel William Moultrie; and before the

British were prepared to attack the city General Charles Lee arrived in Charleston, and took the chief command of the American troops there. The English fleet under Parker, and the land troops under Clinton, opened a furious assault upon Fort Moultrie on the 28th of June, 1776. After a stubborn conflict of ten hours, the British army was repulsed with heavy loss, and sailed away for New York, leaving the Southern colonies free from the turmoil of war for more than two years. General Clinton joined Howe's army at New York on the 1st of August.

A few days after the repulse of the British at Charleston, the Continental Congress, sitting in the old State House in Philadelphia, immortalized itself by a glorious act. The Congress had been for some time discussing the question of proclaiming the independence of the Anglo-American colonies. All hopes for a reconciliation with the mother country had passed away. The British Parliament had not repealed its obnoxious acts. The British Ministry had sent large armies to America to force the colonists to submit, and hired seventeen thousand Hessians from Germany to assist in crushing liberty in America. These proceedings widened irreparably the breach between England and her North American colonies; and a pamphlet called *Common Sense*, written by Thomas Paine, who had come from England several years before, had prepared the Anglo-Americans for independence.

THOMAS PAINE.

On the 7th of June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, offered the following resolution of independence in the Continental Congress: "Resolved, That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." This resolution was warmly debated in the Congress, many of the delegates opposing it as premature, and others as treasonable; and a committee of five, consisting of Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, John Adams of Massachusetts, Dr. Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, Roger Sherman of Connecticut and Robert R. Livingston of New York, was appointed to draft a declaration of independence in accordance with Lee's resolution. The declaration was written by Jefferson, the chairman of the committee, and was reported on the 2d of July, on which day Lee's resolution was passed; and on the 4th (July, 1776), the Congress adopted the great *Declaration of Independence*, which proclaimed the Anglo-American colonies free and independent States under the name of *The United States of America*, and which also defined the rights of all mankind. This



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

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action of the Congress was approved everywhere throughout English America; and the 4th of July, 1776, has ever since been remembered by the American people as their country's birth-day, and the annual recurrence of the day has been always celebrated with every demonstration of public enthusiasm.

A few days before the Declaration of Independence, General Howe appeared on Staten Island with a powerful British force. There, on the 12th of July, he was joined by his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, with a large fleet from England; and on the 1st of August by Sir Henry Clinton and his land forces from Charleston. In August thirty thousand British troops stood opposed to the American army of seventeen thousand men. Admiral and General Howe were jointly commissioned to treat for peace, but only on the condition that the Americans should lay down their arms and submit to the authority of the British government; and, as the Americans refused to agree to such a peace, the British officers prepared to crush the rebellious colonists at one blow.

JOHN HANCOCK.

On the 22d of August, 1776, a British force of ten thousand men landed on Long Island, near Brooklyn; and on the 27th (August, 1776) a bloody battle was fought between the British commanded by Generals Grant, Cornwallis, Clinton and De Heister, and several thousand Americans under the chief command of General Israel Putnam. The Americans were disastrously

defeated, with the loss of sixteen hundred men in killed, wounded and prisoners. Among the Americans who were made prisoners were General Sullivan and Lord Stirling. Several days after the battle General Putnam was joined by Washington, with the main body of the American army, from New York City; but on the 30th (August, 1776) the whole American army recrossed from Brooklyn to New York.

On the 15th of September (1776) Washington's army evacuated New York City, and retreated up the Hudson, for the purpose of seizing and fortifying Harlem Heights, on the upper end of Manhattan

SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

Island. The British pursued, and on the same day a severe skirmish occurred on Harlem Plains, in which the Americans were victorious, but at the cost of the lives of Colonel Knowlton of Connecticut and Major Leitch of Virginia.

In order to ascertain the exact condition of the British army, Washington engaged Captain Nathan Hale, a young Connecticut officer of Knowlton's regiment, to visit the British camps on Long Island as a spy. After getting the information he wanted, and, as he was about to return, he was detected, taken to General Howe's headquarters at New York, and hanged as a spy the next morning by the brutal provost-marshal Cunningham. He was refused a Bible or a clergymen during his last hours, or to send letters to his friends. A humane British officer had given him pen, ink and paper to write a letter; but the brutal provost-marshal took them from him and tore his letter to pieces, saying afterward that his reason for so doing was that he "did not want the rebels to know that they had a man who could die with such firmness." Hale was a young man of liberal education and accomplished manners, and had taught school. His last words were: "I regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

On the 28th of October (1776) Howe defeated Washington in the battle of White Plains; after which Washington retreated further northward; and on the 4th of November he crossed the Hudson river into New Jersey, for the purpose of saving Philadelphia, where the Congress was sitting. On the 16th of November (1776) Fort Washington was captured by the Hessian general Knyphausen, after a furious assault, in which he lost one thousand men. The two thousand American troops under Colonel Magaw, who had garrisoned the fort, became prisoners to the victorious Hessians.

WASHINGTON ON THE HUDSON.

Two days after the fall of Fort Washington (November 18, 1776) Lord Cornwallis, with six thousand British troops, crossed the Hudson into New Jersey in pursuit of Washington's shattered army. For three weeks Washington, with only three thousand men under his command, retreated before the pursuing hosts of Cornwallis until he reached the Delaware, on the 8th of December, and crossed that stream into Pennsylvania. Howe ordered Cornwallis to wait

until the river was frozen over and then cross on the ice. In the meantime General Charles Lee was surprised and captured by the British near Morristown, New Jersey.

Taking advantage of the delay of the enemy, and having increased his army to five thousand men, Washington secretly recrossed the Delaware into New Jersey on Christmas night; and on the following morning (December 26, 1776) he attacked and captured one thousand Hessians at Trenton. The Hessian commander, Colonel Rahl, fell mortally wounded in the streets of the city. This sudden victory raised the spirits of the desponding patriots and alarmed General Howe, who had supposed that the rebellion was at an end. Howe immediately sent Cornwallis with a considerable force to capture Washington's army.

On the evening of the 2d of January, 1777, Lord Cornwallis appeared at Trenton with a strong British force and encamped close to Washington's army, which he expected to capture on the following morning. Washington, however, escaped secretly during the night; and the next morning (January 3, 1777) he defeated a British detachment under Colonel Mawhood at Princeton. Among the Americans who were killed was the heroic General Hugh Mercer. After the battle of Princeton, Washington marched to the hills of North-eastern New Jersey and established his camp at Morristown. He sent out detachments, which, by a system of guerrilla warfare, so annoyed the British that they soon left New Jersey.

On the approach of a British detachment from New York, General MacDougall burned the American stores in his charge at Peekskill, on the Hudson, March 23, 1777, and fled to the hills. About the middle of April (1777) Lord Cornwallis went up the Raritan river and attacked the Americans under General Benjamin Lincoln at Boundbrook, New Jersey, with little effect.

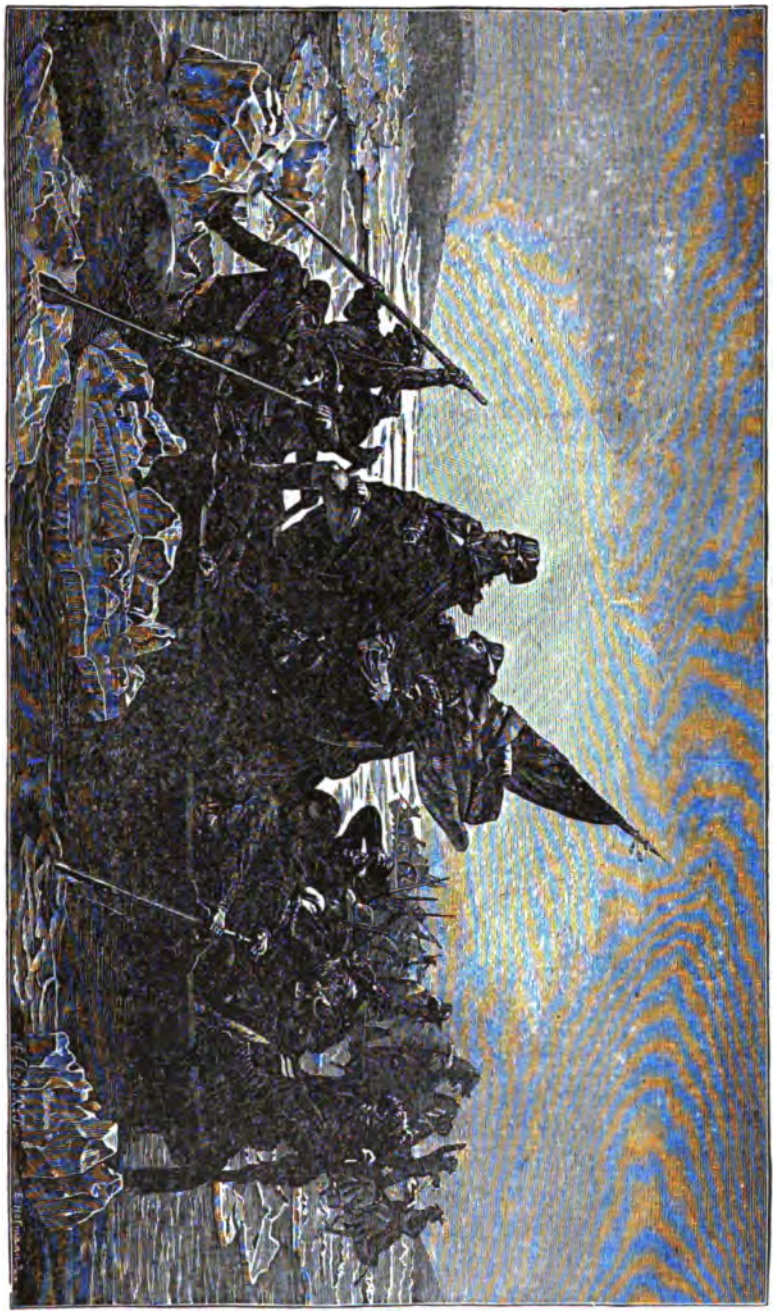
WASHINGTON'S RETREAT THROUGH NEW JERSEY.

Toward the close of April, 1777, Governor Tryon, at the head of two thousand British and Tories, invaded Connecticut and devastated the southern part of that State. The Connecticut militia, under Generals Wooster, Silliman and Arnold, attacked Tryon's force at Ridgefield on the 27th of April (1777). Wooster was killed in the engagement, but the enemy were compelled to retreat hastily to New York.

At two o'clock in the morning of April 23,

1777, one hundred and seventy Americans under Colonel Meigs, after crossing Long Island Sound from Connecticut, surprised a British provision post at Sag Harbor, on the eastern end of Long Island, burned a dozen vessels, the store-houses and their contents, and returned without losing a man.

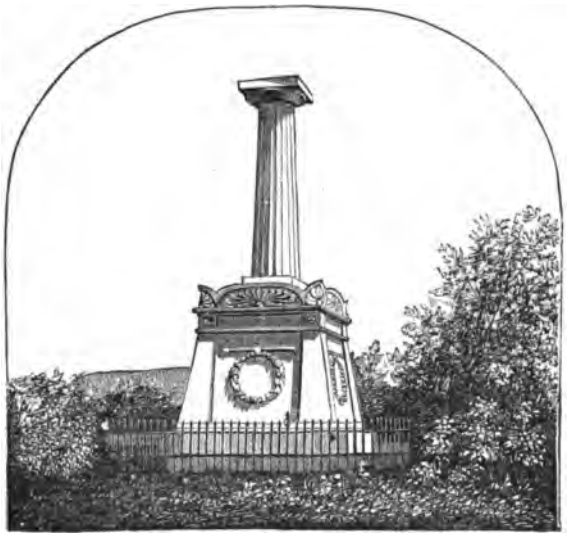
On the night of July 10, 1777, Colonel William Barton with some men in whale-boats crossed Narraganset Bay to Newport, Rhode Island, stole quietly to the quarters of the British General Prescott, took him from his bed, and carried him away a prisoner. General Prescott was afterward



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

exchanged for the American General Charles Lee.

During the year 1777 the young Marquis de Lafayette, a wealthy French nobleman, nineteen years of age; the Baron de Kalb, also a Frenchman; and two brave Poles, Count Pulaski and Thaddeus Kosciuszko, arrived in America to serve the cause of freedom. In the following year the Baron de Steuben, a skillful Prussian military officer, arrived, and brought efficiency to the American army.



KOSCIUSZKO'S MONUMENT AT WEST POINT.

The main armies of the British and the Americans commenced active operations in June. In the latter part of that month Howe's army left New Jersey, and was conveyed by the British fleet down the Atlantic to the mouth of the Chesapeake bay, and up that bay to its head, where it disembarked; after which it marched eastward, in the direction of Philadelphia. Washington, in the meantime, had crossed the Delaware river, and advanced westward to meet Howe.

At Chad's Ford, on the banks of the Brandywine creek, in Chester county, Pennsylvania, a bloody battle was fought on the 11th of September, 1777, between the armies of Washington and Howe. The Hessians under General Knyphausen attacked the American left wing under Washington in person at Chad's Ford, while Howe and Cornwallis assailed the American right wing under General John Sullivan near the Birmingham meeting-house. Washington was defeated, with the loss of twelve hundred men in killed, wounded and prisoners; while Howe lost only eight hundred men. The next day the shattered American army retreated to Philadelphia. In this battle the young Marquis de Lafayette was severely wounded. Count Pulaski also fought in this battle. On the night of the 20th (September, 1777) General Anthony Wayne, with fifteen hundred American troops, was attacked at Paoli by a British force under General Grey. Wayne lost three hundred men. This is known as the *Massacre of Paoli.*

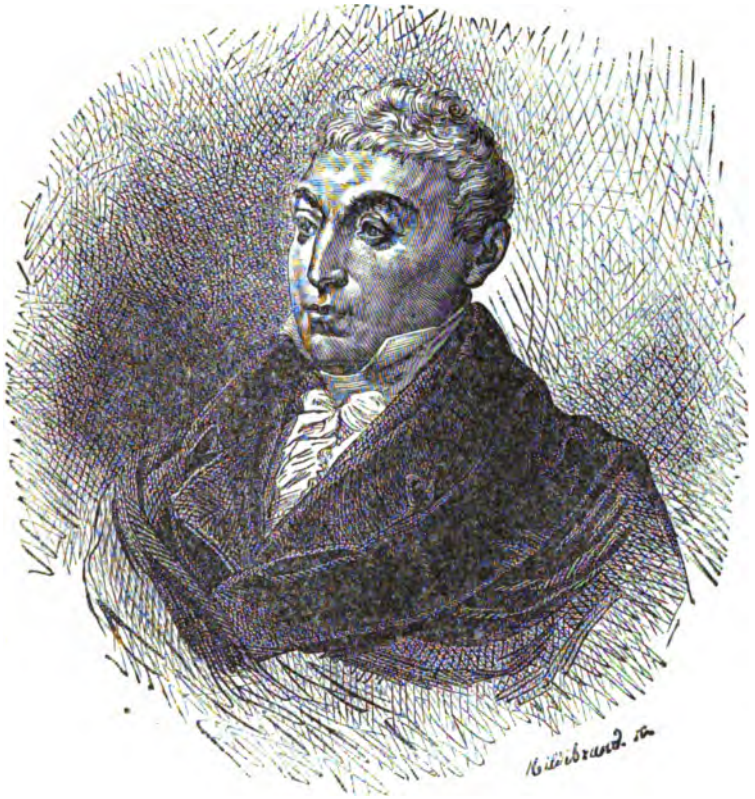
After the battle of Brandywine, Washington made another stand for the defense of Philadelphia against Howe's advancing forces, crossed the Schuylkill, and had a skirmish with Howe's army twenty miles west of Philadelphia; but a heavy rain prevented a general battle, and Washington retreated to Reading. The Congress left the city, and went first to Lancaster and then to York, where it assembled on the 30th of September (1777), and where it remained in session until the following summer. General Howe took military possession of Philadelphia on the 26th of September, 1777, and the British army established its winter-quarters in the Quaker City.

On the 4th of October (1777) a severe battle was fought at Germantown, near Philadelphia, between the armies of Washington and Howe. The Americans were defeated with the loss of twelve hundred men, while the British lost only half that number. The campaign between the main armies closed with the battle of Germantown, and Washington went into winter-quarters at Whitemarsh; but he afterwards removed to Valley Forge, on the Schuylkill river, twenty miles north-west from Philadelphia, which city was occupied by the enemy until the following June.

While the events just related were occur-

ring on land, the British fleet sailed round to Delaware bay, which it afterward ascended on its way to Philadelphia; but its passage was obstructed by Fort Mifflin on the Pennsylvania shore of the Delaware river, Fort Mercer on the New Jersey shore, and heavy *chevaux-de-frise* in the channel of the river. The forts were unsuccessfully assailed by land troops sent by General Howe to coöperate with the fleet. Fort Mifflin, which was defended by a small American force under Colonel Christopher Greene, repulsed an attack of two thousand Hessians under Count Donop, who was mortally wounded during the attack. Fort Mercer, garrisoned by a body of American troops under Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, also repulsed the assaults of the enemy; but about the middle of November (1777) both forts were evacuated by their garrisons, and the British fleet sailed up to Philadelphia.

While the Americans met with misfortunes in Pennsylvania, General Burgoyne, with ten thousand British troops, was marching southward from Canada, along the western coast of Lake Champlain, toward Albany. Burgoyne took possession of Ticonderoga on the 2d of July; the American troops under General Arthur St. Clair, who had garrisoned the fortress, having fled, on the invader's approach, to Fort Edward, which was then held by three thousand American troops under General Philip Schuyler. St. Clair's rear division was defeated by the enemy at Hubbardton, in the present State of Vermont. The shattered forces of St. Clair joined General Schuyler at Fort Edward on the 12th of July (1777); and the whole American army of the North, then under the command of Schuyler, retreated to the Mohawk river and established a fortified camp in the vicinity of Cohoes Falls.



GENERAL LAFAYETTE IN HIS OLD AGE.

Burgoyne, after reaching Fort Edward, on the 3d of July, sent out a body of Hessians under Colonel Baum to seize provisions and cattle which the Americans had collected at Bennington, in the present State of Vermont. Baum's Hessians were defeated on the 16th of August, 1777, by the Green Mountain Boys under Colonel John Stark, about five miles from Bennington. On the same day another British detachment was defeated by a small American force under Colonel Seth Warner.

GENERAL BURGOYNE.

While Burgoyne was advancing from the North, a strong force of Canadians, Tories and Indians, under Colonel St. Leger, John Johnson, John Butler, and Joseph Brandt, the famous Mohawk chieftain, invaded the Mohawk Valley, and besieged Fort Schuyler (now Rome) on the 3d of August. General Herkimer, while hastening with a body of New York militia to the relief of Fort Schuyler, was defeated and killed in the battle of Oriskany. When Colonel Benedict Arnold approached Fort Schuyler with an American relief force, the besiegers were driven away and dispersed.

In the meantime General Horatio Gates superseded General Schuyler in the command of the American army of the North, which had been increased, by a heavy reinforcement of New England militia under General Benjamin Lincoln, to thirteen thousand men. On the 19th of September, 1777, a bloody but indecisive engagement was fought at Bemis's Heights, near Saratoga, between the armies of Gates and Burgoyne. On the 7th of October (1777) another sanguinary battle took place between the same armies, at Saratoga. Ten days afterward (October 17, 1777) Burgoyne surrendered his whole army of six thousand men to the American general. This great victory produced the liveliest joy in America, and fell like a bomb-shell into the midst of the war party in the British Parliament. It strengthened the peace party in England, and greatly influenced the French Court in favor of the struggling Americans. After returning to England, Burgoyne became a member of Parliament and opposed the war.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, the great champion of the Americans, in a speech in the House of Lords, said: "You can not, my lords, you can not conquer America. * * If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop remained in my country, I never would lay down my arms—never, never, never!" In a burst of indignant eloquence he thundered against the employment of the savage Indian allies with their tomahawks and scalping-knives for the slaughter of England's own children in America. But his proposals to win back the colonists by measures of reconciliation were haughtily rejected by the obstinate king and his Ministers, who blindly persisted in their determination to reduce the revolted colonists to submission.

In the meantime a strong British force under Sir Henry Clinton was marching up the Hudson river to coöperate with Burgoyne. Clinton captured Forts Clinton and Montgomery, at the passes of the Highlands; but when he heard of Burgoyne's surrender he hastily retreated down the Hudson to New York.

The American flag, composed of thirteen stripes alternately red and white, to represent the thirteen original States, with a blue field in one corner with as many white stars as there were States, was finally adopted by the Continental Congress at Philadelphia, June 14, 1777.

In November, 1777, the American Congress, at York, in Pennsylvania, agreed to an instrument of union, known as the *Articles of Confederation*. By these articles the American States were united into a confederacy for common defense; and the power of declaring and carrying on war, and also the right of concluding treaties, were delegated to the Congress. Under this form of government the United States continued until the adoption of the present National Constitution in 1789—a period of nearly twelve years.

During the severe winter of 1777–'78 Washington's army was encamped at Valley Forge, on the banks of the Schuykill river, twenty miles north-west from Philadelphia. Many of the troops were without shoes, and left bloody footprints in the snow. But having faith in the justice of their cause, the patriots patiently endured all their hardships, and were resolved to sacrifice everything for the liberties of their country. An unsuccessful attempt was made by some American officers, with General Conway at their head, to transfer the chief command of the American armies from Washington to General Charles Lee.

The surrender of Burgoyne convinced the French court and government that the Americans were able to defend their liberties; and accordingly that government concluded a treaty of alliance with, and recognized the independence of, the United States of America. This act of the French government led to a war between France and England. Even the Ministry was now convinced of the hopelessness of the effort to conquer the revolted colonies, and Lord North introduced two conciliatory bills into Parliament granting the colonists all that they had claimed before their Declaration of Independence. King George III. was as obstinate as ever, but his influence broke down before the general despair. The country, however, stung by its great humiliation in the surrender of Burgoyne, sent fifteen thousand men to recruit the ranks of the army.

In the debates that ensued in Parliament, Lord North found that some of his former supporters were more virulent in their opposition to his Ministry than his political foes. These former partisans of his taunted him for abandoning the high principles of prerogative and British supremacy which he had hitherto maintained, and complained bitterly of the deception by which he had obtained their support. Lord North's conciliatory bills passed the House of Commons, but their progress through the House of Lords was marked by a memorable incident.

The Duke of Richmond and many others of the Whig party openly advocated the purchase of peace even at the cost of acknowledging American independence. The venerable William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, sinking under the weight of years and from the gout, appeared in his seat in the House of Lords for the purpose of protesting against the dismemberment of the British Empire, to whose greatness he had so largely contributed. He was in favor of reconciliation with the colonies, but was resolutely opposed to the acknowledgment of American independence, deprecating such a proceeding with great warmth and eloquence. After the Duke of Richmond had answered his speech, the venerable Earl of Chatham rose in reply; but his powers of nature were exhausted, and he fell on the floor of the House of Lords in a swoon, uttering in a few broken sentences his protest against acknowledging American independence. Among the words he murmured were these: "His Majesty succeeded to an empire as great in extent as its reputation was unsullied. Seventeen years ago this people was the terror of the world. Shall we fall prostrate before the House of Bourbon?" He then sank to the floor unconscious, and in that condition he was removed to his

favorite country-seat, where he died in a few days, May 11, 1778, in the seventieth year of his age.

Thus died the ablest and the most successful statesman that had hitherto wielded the destinies of Great Britain. Parliament paid merited honor to his memory, granting the sum of twenty thousand pounds for the liquidation of his debts, and settling a pension of four thousand pounds on his heirs. His remains were interred with great pomp in Westminster Abbey, and a monument was erected to his memory at the public expense.

Lord North sent commissioners to America to induce the Americans to consent to a peace on the condition that they should return to their allegiance to the British Government, and that Parliament in return should repeal all its obnoxious acts and surrender its pretensions to legislate for the Americans. But the Americans now refused to treat for peace unless Great Britain should withdraw her fleets and armies, and unconditionally acknowledge the independence of the United States; and so the war continued. One of these British commissioners attempted to bribe several members of the American Congress. General Joseph Reed, who had been thus approached, replied: "I am not worth buying; but, such as I am, the King of Great Britain is not rich enough to do it."

When it was known that a powerful French fleet under the Count D'Estaing was on its way to the Delaware, the British army, under Sir Henry Clinton, who had in the meantime succeeded General Howe as British commander-in-chief, evacuated Philadelphia on the 18th of June, 1778, and fled into New Jersey, toward New York. Washington pursued Clinton with twelve thousand men; and at Monmouth Court House, on a hot Sabbath day, June 28, 1778, a sanguinary but indecisive battle was fought. The battle had continued nearly the entire day, and after midnight Clinton and his army fled to New York. Washington crossed the Hudson into New York, and encamped at White Plains until late in autumn, when he again passed into New Jersey, and went into winter-quarters at Middlebrook, on the Raritan river.

The French fleet under the Count D'Estaing appeared in the Delaware early in July; but the British fleet under Lord Howe having sailed to New York, D'Estaing sailed to Rhode Island, to coöperate with the American army under General John Sullivan in an attempt to expel the British from that State. On the 9th of August, Sullivan landed with a strong force on the island of Rhode Island, and Howe's fleet appeared off the island on the same day. D'Estaing intended to attack Howe; but both fleets being disabled by a terrible storm they were obliged to seek port for repairs. D'Estaing appeared at Newport on the 20th, when Sullivan was near there; but the French admiral refused to give any aid to the American general; whereupon Sullivan retreated northward, and was pursued by the British, who attacked him at Quaker Hill on the 29th of August (1778). Sullivan repulsed the attacks of the enemy; but he was obliged to evacuate the island, as the British had just been reinforced by four thousand troops under General Clinton.

During the year 1778 the Mohawk, Schoharie and Cherry Valleys, in New York, and the Wyoming Valley, in Pennsylvania, were the scenes of the most shocking cruelties perpetrated by the Indians under Joseph Brandt, and the Tories under Colonels John Johnson and John Butler. At the beginning of July eleven hundred Indians and Tories under John Butler entered the lovely valley of Wyoming. Four hundred soldiers and settlers under Colonel Zebulon Butler, the cousin of Colonel John Butler, were utterly routed by the invaders, July 4, 1778. The few soldiers and settlers who had sought refuge in Forty Fort, near Wilkes-Barre, were forced to surrender July 5, 1778; and about three hundred of the inhabitants of the valley, who had fled in the night to the neighboring mountains, were hunted by the savages and their white allies, and massacred in cold blood. The Indians spread death and desolation over

the beautiful valley, setting fire to dwellings and massacring several hundred men, women and children. This horrible tragedy is known as the *Massacre of Wyoming*. In November (1778) Cherry Valley, in New York, was visited by a band of Tories and Indians under Butler and Brandt; and many of the inhabitants were killed, or carried into captivity.

In November, 1778, Sir Henry Clinton sent two thousand of his troops under Colonel Campbell to invade Georgia, thus transferring the seat of actual war to the Southern States. On the 29th of December (1778) Campbell entered Savannah, the American troops under Colonel Robert Howe having evacuated the town on the approach of the British and fled up the Savannah river. Royal authority was now temporarily reëstablished in Georgia, and that State remained under the power of the British until near the end of the war.

The American finances were now in a most wretched condition, as the two hundred million dollars of *Continental Money* issued by the Continental Congress since 1776 had rapidly depreciated, and had become almost worthless by the close of 1778. The Baron de Steuben, the skillful disciplinarian and veteran from the armies of Frederick the Great of Prussia, was made Inspector-General of Washington's army, which still remained encamped at Middlebrook, New Jersey.

BARON DE STEUBEN.

On the 9th of January, 1779, the British army under General Prevost captured Sunbury, in Georgia. On the 14th of February (1779) a band of Tories under Colonel Boyd was annihilated by a Whig force under Colonel Andrew Pickens in the bat-

tle of Brier Creek. The British, under Colonel Campbell, who had just marched up the Georgia side of the Savannah river, then fled toward the sea-coast, pursued by two thousand American troops under General James Ashe. At Brier Creek, Ashe was defeated on the 3d of March, 1779, by the British under General Prevost. After the battle of Brier Creek, Prevost invaded South Carolina and marched against Charleston. An American army under General Benjamin Lincoln hastened to the relief of Charleston, whereupon Prevost retreated with great haste toward Savannah. On the 20th of June (1779) a severe battle took place at Stono Ferry between detachments of the two armies, which resulted in the repulse of the Americans.

An expedition composed of fifteen hundred British and Hessian troops under Governor Tryon made a destructive raid into Connecticut in April, 1779. After defeating the Americans under General Putnam at Greenwich, Tryon retreated westward to New York, pursued by Putnam, who retook some of the enemy's plunder. In May (1779) Sir George Collier, with a small British squadron, and General Matthews, with an English land force, ravaged the country around Norfolk, in Virginia. On the 31st of May, Stony Point, on the west side of the Hudson river, was taken by the British under Sir Henry Clinton, who, on the following day (June 1, 1779), also captured Verplanck's Point, on the opposite side of the river. In the beginning of July, Tryon, with two thousand British troops, made another destructive invasion of Connecticut, laying the beautiful towns of East Haven, Fairfield and Norwalk in ashes.

About midnight, July 16, 1779, General Anthony Wayne, with a small American force, recaptured Stony Point, after a short but desperate fight, and made the British garrison, commanded by Colonel Johnson, prisoners of war. The loss of the English in killed, wounded and captured was about six hundred men. On the 19th of the same month (July, 1779) Major Henry Lee, at the head of a small body of Americans, captured Paulus Hook (now Jersey City), opposite New York City, after killing, wounding and capturing two hundred of the enemy. In August a British fleet destroyed an American flotilla off Castine, on the coast of the present State of Maine.

During 1778 and 1779 important events were occurring in the vast wilderness west of the Allegheny mountains. For several years Daniel Boone, the great pioneer, had struggled with the Indians in the present State of Kentucky. Kaskaskia, on the Mississippi, and Vincennes, on the Wabash, were wrested from the British by the Americans under Major George Rogers Clarke of Virginia. Vincennes was recaptured by the enemy, but Clarke again obtained possession of that post in February (1779).

In the summer of 1779 the Americans sent an expedition under General John Sullivan to punish the New York Indians for their raids and massacres in the Wyoming and Cherry Valleys in the previous year. At the head of nearly five thousand men, Sullivan invaded the country of the Six Nations, in Western New York, where, in the space of three weeks, he destroyed the crops of the Indians and forty of their villages.

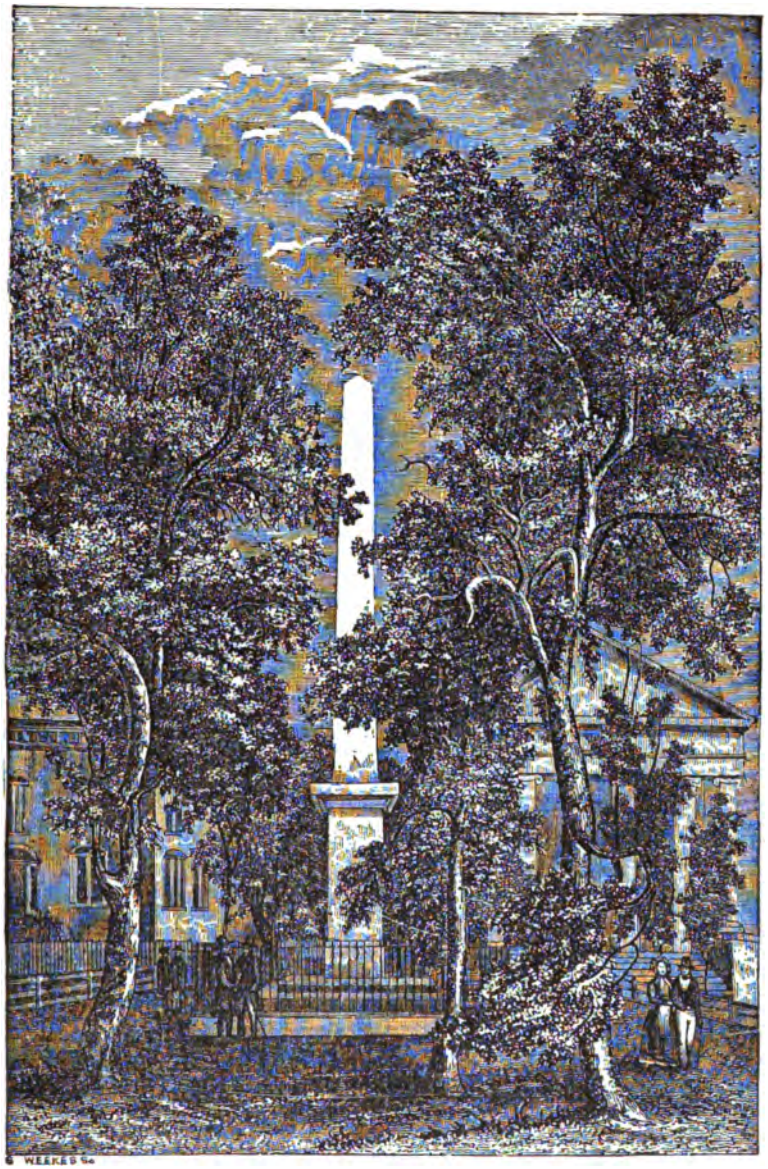
The American army under General Lincoln, aided by the French fleet under the Count D'Estaing, commenced to besiege the English at Savannah on the 23d of September, 1779. A heavy assault upon the British works, on the 9th of October, was repulsed after five hours of fighting, in which the Americans and French lost one thousand men; the brave Pole, Count Pulaski, being among the slain. D'Estaing sailed with his fleet to the West Indies, and Lincoln was obliged to raise the siege and retreat to Charleston.

On the 23d of September, 1779, the *Bonhomme Richard*, an American vessel, commanded by John Paul Jones, gained a brilliant victory off Flamborough Head, on the eastern coast of England, over the English vessel *Serapis*, commanded by Captain Pearson, after a bloody fight of several hours. The *Serapis* surrendered, as did also the *Countess of Scarborough*, another large Brit-

ish vessel; and the *Bonhomme Richard* was so much injured that she sunk sixteen hours after the engagement.

Another power was now added to the enemies of England. With the hope of recovering the rock of Gibraltar, Spain declared war against Great Britain in June, 1779. A combined French and Spanish armament attempted an invasion of England in August, and a united French and Spanish naval force laid siege to Gibraltar.

At the close of 1779 Sir Henry Clinton sailed, with five thousand troops, in Admiral Arbuthnot's fleet, from New York, for Charleston, South Carolina, which city was then garrisoned by the American army under General Lincoln. On the 9th of April, 1780, Arbuthnot, with the British fleet, passed up Charleston harbor, and both he and Clinton, who landed troops on the islands below Charleston, laid siege to the city. On the 14th of April (1780) a party



PULASKI'S MONUMENT, AT CHRIST CHURCH, SAVANNAH.

of Americans under Colonel Huger was defeated by the British cavalry under Colonel Tarleton, at Monk's Corner, some distance north from the city. After the siege had lasted a month, and after the city had suffered heavy bombardments and been on fire in many places, Lincoln surrendered Charleston, together with his army and many citizens, six thousand in number, and four hundred pieces of cannon, to Clinton, on the 12th of May, 1780. Early in the following month Clinton sailed with the greater part of the British army for New York, leaving Lord Cornwallis with a small force to complete the subjugation of the Southern States.

Already Cornwallis had marched up the Santee to Camden; Lieutenant-Colonel Cruger, with a small British force, marched to and garrisoned Fort Ninety-Six; and Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, with another British detachment, marched to and garrisoned the town of Augusta, in Georgia. At the Waxaw Creek the British cavalry under Colonel Tarleton captured and massacred a small force of American infantry under Colonel Buford. All of South Carolina was now at the mercy of the British, and Cornwallis prepared for the reëstablishment of royal authority in that State. Soon, however, when it was known that General Horatio Gates was advancing southward with an American army for the aid of the patriots of the Carolinas, guerrilla leaders like Thomas Sumter, Francis Marion, Andrew Pickens and George Rogers Clarke, appeared in the field at the head of small detachments, falling upon and annoying bands of British and Tories. Sumter was repulsed at Rocky Mount on the 30th of July, but he afterward almost annihilated Tarleton's cavalry at Hanging Rock.

In August, 1780, the American army under General Gates entered South Carolina from the North. On the 16th of that month Gates's army was thoroughly defeated and dispersed by the British forces under Lords Cornwallis and Rawdon in the battle of Sanders' Creek, near Camden. The Americans lost one thousand men, the brave Baron De Kalb being among the slain; and General Gates fled to Charlotte, North Carolina. Two days after the defeat of Gates, Colonel Sumter's force was almost broken up by the British cavalry under Colonel Tarleton, on Fishing Creek. These American misfortunes again prostrated South Carolina at the feet of the enemy.

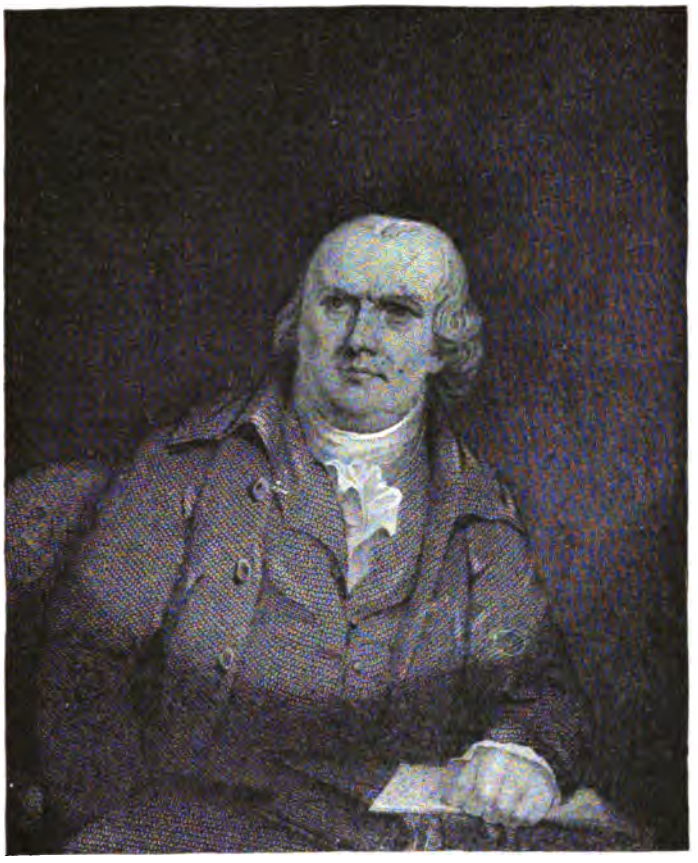
Cornwallis attempted to restore British authority in South Carolina by harsh measures; but his tyranny prevented a reconciliation, and inflamed the patriots with deadly hatred of English rule. On the 7th of October (1780) a body of fifteen hundred Tory militia under Major Patrick Ferguson was completely defeated by backwoods patriots under Colonels Campbell, Shelby, Cleveland, Sevier, Winston, McDowell and Williams, on King's Mountain, in the northwestern part of South Carolina; the patriots taking eight hundred prisoners and fifteen hundred stand of arms, and Major Ferguson being among the slain. The activity of the guerrilla leaders, Colonels Sumter, Marion, Pickens and Clarke, alarmed Cornwallis, and caused him to retire from North Carolina, which State he had just invaded, and to return to South Carolina.

In June, 1780, a British force of five thousand men under General Matthews invaded New Jersey from New York city. After being defeated in a skirmish at Springfield by the Americans under General Nathaniel Greene, the invaders again retired from New Jersey and returned to New York. At the close of 1780 a French fleet under Admiral de Ternay, carrying six thousand French land troops under the Count de Rochambeau, landed at Newport, Rhode Island.

While General Washington was in New England, conferring with the French officers, General Benedict Arnold was bargaining with Sir Henry Clinton for the surrender of the important post of West Point, on the Hudson river, into the hands of the enemy. Arnold, who had incurred vast debts by his extravagance, had been charged by the Congress with fraudulent transactions while military governor in Philadelphia.

As a punishment, the Congress sentenced him to a reprimand from Washington. Arnold determined to have revenge by plotting treason against his country and aiding its enemies. His correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton was carried on through the young and accomplished Major John Andre, Clinton's adjutant-general. The treasonable correspondence between Arnold and Clinton had been carried on for more than a year, when, in September, 1780, Arnold and Andre met personally for the first time at Haverstraw, on the west side of the Hudson river. When their bargain was closed, Major Andre prepared to return to Clinton's headquarters at New York. On his way, Andre was stopped and made a prisoner by three young American militia-men; and on the 2d of October (1780) he was hanged as a spy by the Americans. Arnold succeeded in making his escape to the enemy; and he received a commission of brigadier-general in the British army, and fifty thousand dollars, as a reward for his treason to his country. Major Andre, like General Burgoyne, was a descendant of the French Huguenots who had settled in England after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Louis XIV. in 1685.

When it became known to the British Ministry that a secret commercial treaty had been concluded between Holland and the United States, the British Parliament declared war against Holland, on the 20th of December, 1780. Thus England had now to contend, without any assistance, against France, Spain, Holland and her rebellious colonies in North America. At about the same time the Empress Catharine II. of Russia induced the govern-



ROBERT MORRIS.

ments of Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, Germany and Portugal to unite with her in a maritime alliance called the *Armed Neutrality*. The alleged object of this powerful league was the defense of the neutral powers against the right of search claimed by England, but its real object was to deprive Great Britain of her maritime superiority.

On the 1st of January, 1781, about thirteen hundred Pennsylvania troops left Washington's camp at Morristown, New Jersey, and marched toward Philadelphia, for the purpose of compelling the Congress to provide the soldiers with pay and clothing, which duty had long been neglected. When the mutineers arrived at Princeton, British emissaries sent by General Clinton tried to bribe them to enter the king's service; but the mutineers, indignant at the implied doubt of their patriotism and devotion to the cause of freedom, handed the emissaries over to General Wayne for punishment as spies. At Princeton the mutineers were also met by a committee from the Congress, promising that that body would provide for their necessities as soon as they returned to duty. The Pennsylvania mutineers accepted the promise and returned to camp. On the 18th of the same month (January, 1781) some of the New Jersey troops at Pompton, in the same State, also mutinied; but this disorder was suppressed by military force, and two of the ringleaders were hanged as a punishment for their mutiny.

Warned of these events, the Congress and the American people put forth greater exertions to ameliorate the condition of the troops; and Robert Morris of Philadelphia was appointed by the Congress to the post of financial agent of the American government.

Early in January, 1781, Arnold the traitor, with sixteen hundred English and Tories, invaded Virginia, went up the James river, and destroyed much property at Richmond. In March, General Lafayette was sent with twelve hundred Americans to oppose Arnold's further advance in Virginia; but the traitor was soon reinforced by two thousand English troops under General Phillips, when he went up the James river on another marauding expedition. Soon afterward Arnold left Virginia, and Phillips died at Petersburg.

The Southern States were the chief theater of war in 1781. General Nathaniel Greene was entrusted with the command of the American armies in the South at the close of 1780. On the 17th of January, 1781, a part of Greene's army, under General Daniel Morgan, defeated Tarleton's cavalry in the battle of the Cowpens, in the northwestern part of South Carolina, on which occasion Colonels William A. Washington, of Virginia, and John Eager Howard, of Maryland, behaved very gallantly. After the battle Morgan retreated toward Virginia with his five hundred prisoners, and was pursued by the British army under Lord Cornwallis. Greene soon joined Morgan, and the whole American army made a safe retreat across North Carolina into Virginia. After the Americans had crossed the Dan river, Cornwallis, greatly dispirited, gave up the pursuit, and took post at Hillsborough, in North Carolina.

After a short rest in Virginia, Greene marched into North Carolina to oppose Cornwallis. A bloody battle was fought at Guilford Court House, near Hillsborough, on the 15th of March, 1781. Greene was driven from the field; but the army of Cornwallis suffered severely, and after the battle it retired to Wilmington, on the Cape Fear river. After the battle of Guilford Court House, Greene advanced into South Carolina to oppose the British under Lord Rawdon. On the 19th of April, Greene was defeated by Rawdon in the battle of Hobkirk's Hill, near Camden. About the middle of May (1781) four important military posts in South Carolina fell into the hands of the Americans.

On the 22d of May (1781) Greene laid siege to Fort Ninety-Six. After vainly attempting for nearly a month to take the fort, Greene relinquished the siege and retired from the place on the 19th of June, and marched to the High Hills of Santee.

American troops under Colonels Pickens, Clarke and Henry Lee captured Augusta, in Georgia, on the 5th of June, 1781, after after a siege of twelve days.

In August, 1781, Lord Rawdon sailed for England, leaving his army in command of Colonel Stuart. Before Rawdon's departure a tragic scene occurred in Charleston. Among those who were paroled by the British after the capture of Charleston in 1780 was Colonel Isaac Hayne of South Carolina. When the British were driven

GENERAL NATHANIEL GREENE.

from the vicinity of his residence, Hayne, considering himself released from the obligations of his parole, again took up arms against the British and was taken prisoner. He was brought before Colonel Balfour, the British commandant at Charleston, who condemned him to death as a traitor, although many Tories petitioned in his favor. Lord Rawdon, who was a man of generous feelings, vainly exerted himself to save the prisoner, but finally consented to his execution. This action caused great excitement throughout the Southern States, and was condemned by the Americans as an act of unwarrantable cruelty; but it was strongly urged by the British as a measure of justice.

During the summer of 1781 Greene encamped on the High Hills of Santee. On the 8th of September he fought with the English under Colonel Stuart the battle of Eutaw Springs. Greene was driven from his position, but during the night the British fled to Charleston and the American army reoccupied the battle-field. The American guerrilla parties under Colonels Marion, Sumter and Henry Lee confined the enemy to the sea-board; so that at the close of 1781 Charleston and Savannah were the only posts held by the British south of New York.

Lord Cornwallis left Wilmington, North Carolina, on the 25th of April, 1781, and arrived at Petersburg, Virginia, on the 20th of May, where he took command of the troops of the deceased General Phillips. Cornwallis moved beyond Richmond, de-

stroying a vast amount of property; but he was compelled to retire before the Americans under General Wayne, Lafayette and Baron Steuben. Soon afterward Cornwallis retired to the sea-coast, and fortified Yorktown, on the York river, near its mouth.

Early in July, 1781, Washington's army was reinforced by French troops under the Count de Rochambeau, and an attempt was about to be made to expel the English army under Sir Henry Clinton from New York city; but when Clinton was reinforced by three thousand fresh troops from England, Washington resolved to march into Virginia for the purpose of driving the British under Cornwallis from that State. After Washington had marched through New Jersey, Clinton sent the traitor Arnold on a plundering expedition into Connecticut, for the purpose of inducing Washington to turn back. Although Arnold burned New London and massacred the American garrison under Colonel Ledyard at Fort Griswold, Washington continued his march for Virginia.

On the 28th of September, 1781, the allied American and French armies, under General Washington and the Count de Rochambeau, appeared before Yorktown. The Count de Grasse, with a powerful French fleet, arrived in the mouth of the York river, from the West Indies. A vigorous siege of the English works was soon commenced. The besiegers opened a heavy cannonade upon the British works on the 9th of October, and two of the British redoubts were captured by American and French storming parties under Lafayette. Reduced to great extremities, Cornwallis attempted to escape on the 16th with his army, and join Clinton at New York, but was prevented from so doing by a terrific storm; and three days afterward (October 19, 1781) he surrendered Yorktown and his entire army of seven thousand men to General Washington, and his shipping to the Count de Grasse. A few days after the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, Sir Henry Clinton appeared at the mouth of the Chesapeake bay with seven thousand English troops to assist Cornwallis; but, being too late, he soon returned to New York, astonished and chagrined. Washington's army returned to the Hudson, while the French troops passed the winter in Virginia.

The surrender of Lord Cornwallis was hailed by the Americans as a harbinger of peace, and caused unbounded rejoicings throughout the United States. From every American hearthstone, from pulpits, from the American army, from legislative halls and from Congress, went up shouts to the Lord God Omnipotent for the great victory. A messenger with the despatch from Washington reached Philadelphia at midnight October 23, 1781; and the watchmen cried out: "Twelve o'clock and Cornwallis is taken." Very soon lights were seen in all the houses, and the excited people soon poured into the streets and made the air resound with their huzzas. At an early hour in the morning, October 24, 1781, Secretary Thomson read the letter to the assembled Congress. That body addressed thanks to the officers and soldiers, and then went in procession to church to offer thanks to God for the great triumph. The Congress also appointed the 13th of December following as a day of national thanksgiving.

The surrender of Cornwallis struck terror and amazement into the hearts of Lord North and his supporters in the British Parliament. In his dismay Lord North paced the room, and, throwing his arms about wildly, he kept exclaiming: "O God! it is all over, it is all over!" The English people, who had long desired peace, were now fully convinced of the utter impossibility of restoring England's colonial empire in North America; and their demands found expression in Parliament, as we shall presently see.

THE WAR IN OTHER QUARTERS.

Although military operations were thus ended in North America, hostilities were now prosecuted with the greatest animosity between Great Britain and her European enemies. Since 1778 the war had extended to other parts of the world, and had been

conducted with various success by the British against the French, the Spaniards and the Dutch on the ocean, in Africa and in the East and West Indies. The British fleets under Admirals Rodney, Keppel, Graves, Parker and others maintained the honor of England on the seas against the attacks of her combined enemies.

The first collision between England and France in the War of the American Revolution occurred at sea. A British fleet under Admiral Keppel had been sent to cruise in the English Channel. Keppel encountered the French fleet under D'Orvilliers off Ushant, on the western coast of France, July 27, 1778; but being badly supported by his second in command, Sir Hugh Palliser, Keppel obtained no decisive success. Lord North's Ministry took advantage of this circumstance to crush Keppel, who had been their political opponent; and at their instigation Palliser preferred a charge of misconduct against his superior. But the court-martial's verdict disappointed the expectations of the Ministry, as Keppel was honorably acquitted; while Palliser was afterward tried for disobedience of orders, and was partially condemned, being saved from a more ignominious verdict only by the interposition of the whole power of the Ministry.

Soon after the recognition of American independence by France, the English East India Company sent orders to its officers at Madras to attack the neighboring post of Pondicherry, the capital of the French possessions in India. An army of ten thousand men—Englishmen and Sepoys—accordingly besieged that post, and compelled it to surrender in October of the same year, 1778. Chandernagore and Mahé—the other French possessions in India—were also captured by the English during 1778; so that the French power in India was almost annihilated in one campaign.

During the fall of 1778 and the ensuing winter the West Indies were the chief seat of the naval operations of England and France. In September, 1778, the governor of the French island of Martinique conquered the English island of Dominica, and obtained possession of a large quantity of military stores; but in December of the same year a British fleet under Admiral Barrington conquered the French island of St. Lucia, after the French fleet under the Count d' Estaing had failed to relieve the island.

As we have seen, Spain declared war against England in June, 1779. Spain had offered her mediation between England and France merely as the forerunner of a rupture with England; and, on the pretext that her mediation had been slighted, she issued a declaration of war against Great Britain, as the ally of France. A combined French and Spanish land and naval force laid siege to Gibraltar.

Early in 1779 a French fleet attacked and captured the British forts and factories on the rivers Senegal and Gambia, on the western coast of Africa. Later in the same year the French conquered the English islands of St. Vincent and Granada in the West Indies; but, as we have seen, the French fleet under the Count d'Estaing, in conjunction with an American land force, was repulsed in the siege of Savannah.

In August, 1779, a combined French and Spanish armament swept the English Channel and attempted an invasion of England. Lord Sandwich, the First Lord of the Admiralty, was notoriously incompetent for his position; but his colleagues in the Ministry, with the blind obstinacy which characterized all their measures, resolved to retain him in office, in spite of the fact that by his neglect Plymouth had been left in such a defenseless condition that its dockyards and arsenal were only saved from destruction by the ignorance of the French and Spanish admirals. Fortunately for the English, the allied admirals thus raised the blockade of Plymouth, and the army of sixty thousand men which had been assembled on the opposite coast of France was withdrawn.

Even Ireland turned against England in this emergency, and a revolution began in that kingdom which at one time threatened a

separation from Great Britain, but this revolution terminated bloodlessly. Most of the army necessary for the defense of Ireland had been withdrawn from that country and sent to America to aid in suppressing the rebellion against British authority there, and when the allied French and Spanish fleets menaced Ireland with invasion there were no preparations for the defense of that island. Left to themselves, the Irish people displayed a spirit worthy of the crisis. Companies of volunteers were enrolled in every town and district of Ireland. The British government cheerfully supplied arms. The volunteers chose officers, and the patriotic Earl of Charlemont was appointed commander-in-chief of these independent companies, numbering one hundred thousand men.

When England recovered her wonted naval superiority the fear of invasion was removed; but the hundred thousand Irish volunteers retained their arms and refused to disband, thus preserving their organization. They had learned the secret of their strength, and were resolved to effect the regeneration of their country by establishing the independence of the Irish Parliament and the freedom of Irish commerce. They accordingly demanded the repeal of Poyning's Law, an old statute passed by the English Parliament during the reign of Henry VII. requiring all acts passed by the Parliament of Ireland to be approved by that of England before they could become valid. They also demanded that the Irish House of Lords should be recognized as a final Court of Appeal for Ireland. This was a new and unexpected difficulty for Lord North's Ministry; but the Ministry pursued consistently their steady course of narrow and illiberal policy and refused to make any concession, thus bringing Ireland to the very brink of revolution.

Early in January, 1780, the British fleet under Admiral Sir George Rodney, the greatest English admiral except Nelson and Blake, while on the way to relieve the beleaguered fortress of Gibraltar, captured a Spanish squadron of seven ships-of-war and many transports; and several days afterward this same British fleet defeated a much larger Spanish squadron off Cape St. Vincent, on the coast of Portugal, capturing six of the heaviest Spanish vessels and dispersing the remainder. By these victories Admiral Rodney was enabled to relieve the beleaguered British garrisons of Gibraltar and Minorca; after which he sailed to the West Indies, and thrice encountered the French fleet, but with only partial success.

In August, 1780, the English suffered a heavy loss in the capture of the outward bound East and West India fleets of merchant vessels by a Spanish fleet off the western coast of France. The Spaniards took most of the English forts on the Mississippi during the year 1780.

Lord North's Ministry had hitherto found Parliament ready to sustain all their measures, but the many petitions presented from the counties and the principal towns of Great Britain against the Ministry soon gave rise to a formidable opposition to the administration. At length, April 6, 1780, Mr. Dunning presented his famous resolution in the House of Commons "that the influence of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." This resolution was carried by a majority of twenty-eight votes; but a second resolution, intended to give effect to the first, was rejected by a majority of fifty-one; and the Ministry soon recovered its wonted superiority.

In the midst of the war, the British Parliament did a wise act in repealing some of the penal laws against the Roman Catholics; but this action of Parliament produced the most disgraceful riots in some of the leading cities of Great Britain, particularly Edinburgh and London. In June, 1780, an immense mob, aroused by the exertions of some misguided bigots and fanatics, assembled in St. George's Fields, London, to petition for a repeal of the laws that had been passed in favor of the Roman Catholics. After adopting several resolutions the mob proceeded in large parties to the avenues leading to the House of Commons, and there insulted several of the

members. Lord George Gordon, a visionary enthusiast, came out of the House of Commons and informed the mob that their petition had been rejected. Thereupon the enraged mob proceeded to the greatest outrages and held control of the city for several days, burning the Roman Catholic chapels in and about town, and also several private dwellings, the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench and the Fleet. Even the Bank of England was threatened, and was only preserved with the greatest difficulty. The greatest loss sustained by the public was the destruction of the manuscripts of Lord Mansfield, the most distinguished lawyer of his time, who had made himself obnoxious by the part which he had taken as a judge in sustaining prosecutions for libels against the government The riot was only suppressed when the military were called out, and after two hundred and twenty of the mob had been killed or wounded.

The position taken by Great Britain in claiming the right to search neutral vessels for contraband goods, along with her seizure of vessels not laden with exceptionable cargoes, produced a formidable opposition to her in 1780 by most of the European powers, which united in the *Armed Neutrality* for the protection of the commerce of neutral nations. The instigator and head of this powerful league was the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia, who asserted in her manifesto to the courts of England, France and Spain that she had adopted the following principles, which she would uphold and defend with all her naval power: 1. That neutral ships should enjoy free navigation from one port to another, even upon the coasts of belligerent powers, except to ports actually blockaded. 2. That all effects conveyed by such ships, excepting only warlike stores, should be free. 3. That whenever any vessel should have shown by its papers that it was not the carrier of any contraband article it should not be liable to seizure or detention. 4. That only such ports should be considered blockaded before which was stationed a force sufficient to render the entrance perilous. Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Portugal, Prussia and the German Empire readily joined the Empress of Russia in the Armed Neutrality. France and Spain expressed their approval of the terms of this maritime league; while England, thus opposed by the whole civilized world, was obliged to submit to this exposition of the rights of neutral powers.

Since the conclusion of the alliance between France and the United States mutual recriminations had been almost constantly passing between England and Holland, the former accusing the latter of supplying the enemies of Great Britain with military and naval stores contrary to the treaty stipulations, and the Dutch Republic complaining that many of her vessels not laden with contraband goods had been seized and carried into British ports. A partial collision between an English fleet and a Dutch squadron early in 1780 increased the hostile feelings of the two nations. The papers found in the possession of Mr. Laurens, a former president of the American Congress, upon his capture by a British cruiser, revealed the existence of a commercial treaty between Holland and the United States; whereupon England declared war against Holland, December 20, 1780. The Dutch shipping in British ports was detained, and the British Ministry sent orders to the British commanders in the West Indies to attack the Dutch possessions in that quarter immediately.

Accordingly the British fleet under Admiral Sir George Rodney appeared before the Dutch island of St. Eustatia, a free port abounding with wealth as a great emporium of the West India trade. The inhabitants were taken wholly by surprise when Admiral Rodney sent a peremptory order to the Dutch governor of the island to surrender the island and its dependencies within an hour, February 3, 1781. Unable to make any resistance, the governor surrendered the island unconditionally; and property estimated at the value of four million pounds sterling became the prize of the captors. The Dutch merchant fleet of thirty vessels taken by the British was recaptured by a French squadron and

conveyed to Brest, in France. A British fleet reduced the settlements of Demerara and Essequibo, in Dutch Guiana, in South America; but a British squadron on its way to attack the Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope was defeated off the Cape de Verde Islands by the French fleet under Bailli de Suffrein.

In May, 1781, the Spanish governor of Louisiana completed the conquest of Florida from the English by the capture of Pensacola. The English and French fleets had several partial engagements in the West Indies in April, May and June, 1781, but without any decisive results. Late in May (1781) a large French land force effected a landing on the island of Tobago, which surrendered to them June 3d. In August (1781) a severe but indecisive engagement occurred on the Dogger Bank, in the North Sea, between the English fleet under Admiral Sir Peter Parker and the Dutch fleet under Admiral Zoutman. Both fleets were rendered almost unmanageable, and regained their respective ports with extreme difficulty.

As we have seen, the war in North America ended with the surrender of Lord Cornwallis to General Washington at Yorktown, Virginia, October 19, 1781. In the meantime the attention of all Europe was attracted to the siege of Gibraltar by the combined armies and navies of France and Spain. The fortress had been besieged since 1779, but the besiegers had made no progress in the way of its reduction. The garrison in the fortress consisted of seven thousand British troops under General Elliot, and suffered greatly for want of fuel and provisions, while being exposed to an almost incessant cannonade from the Spanish batteries situated on the peninsula connecting the fortress with the mainland. During three weeks in May, 1781, one hundred thousand shot and shell were thrown into the fortress. All Europe considered a longer defense of the fortress impossible; but suddenly, on the night of November 27, 1781, a select band of two thousand men from the brave little British garrison made a sally from the fortress, and stormed and utterly demolished the enemy's works in less than an hour, inflicting a damage estimated at two million pounds sterling.

During the same month (November, 1781) the French fleet under the Count de Grasse had recaptured the Dutch island of St. Eustatia, in the West Indies, from the British. The French afterward conquered the island of St. Christophers, Nevis and Montserrat from the English. In February, 1782, the French also recaptured the Dutch settlements of Demerara and Essequibo, in Guiana, in South America, from the English.

In February, 1782, the Spaniards compelled the island of Minorca to surrender, after a long siege almost as memorable as that of Gibraltar, during which the British garrison made a most heroic defense. It appeared that England would be driven into a dishonorable peace, but the heroic determination of the English people to uphold their national honor was never more strikingly manifested. With the whole civilized world united against her, Great Britain was rescued from her dangerous and humiliating position by the victories of her navy.

The British fleet under Admiral Rodney gained a great and decisive victory over the French fleet under the Count de Grasse in the West Indies, between the islands of Martinique and Guadaloupe, April 12, 1782; most of the French ships being captured, that of the Count de Grasse among the number, and the French loss in killed, wounded and prisoners being eleven thousand men, while the loss of the English in killed and wounded was only about eleven hundred.

During the year 1782 the fortress of Gibraltar, which had bidden defiance to the armies and navies of France and Spain for three years, sustained one of the most memorable sieges recorded in the annals of warfare. The Spaniards had constructed many enormous floating batteries in the bay of Gibraltar, and twelve hundred pieces of heavy ordnance had been brought to the place to be used in the different methods of

assault. In addition to their floating batteries, the besiegers had eighty large boats, mounted with heavy guns and mortars, along with an immense number of frigates, sloops and schooners; while the united fleets of France and Spain, consisting of fifty ships-of-the-line, were to cover and support the assault on the fortress. Eighty thousand barrels of gunpowder were provided for the occasion, and more than a hundred thousand French and Spanish soldiers and seamen were employed in the siege of the strong fortress.

A grand attack was opened on the fortress on September 13, 1782. Early in the morning of that day the Spanish floating batteries came forward, and at ten o'clock they took their stations about a thousand yards from the rock of Gibraltar and opened a terrific cannonade, which was joined in by all the artillery and mortars in the Spanish lines and approaches. At the same time the heroic British garrison under General Elliot replied with all their batteries, discharging both hot and cold shot; and for several hours both sides maintained a terrific cannonade and bombardment without the least intermission. About two o'clock in the afternoon the largest Spanish floating battery was observed to emit smoke, and toward midnight it was plainly perceived to be on fire. The fight was still raging fiercely, and other floating batteries began to kindle. Signals of distress were made, and boats were sent to take the men from the burning ships; but these boats were interrupted by the English gunboats, which now advanced to the assault, raking the whole line of Spanish floating batteries with their fire, and thus completing the confusion. The floating batteries were soon abandoned to the flames or to the English.

The groans and shrieks of the Spaniards on board the burning ships were pitiful beyond description, and the Spaniards ceased firing; whereupon the English, with characteristic humanity, forgetting that the Spaniards were their enemies, and thinking of them only as suffering fellowmen, hastened to their rescue, and saved four hundred of them from the perils by which they were surrounded. But all the floating batteries were consumed by the flames, and the French and Spanish armies and fleets were unable to renew the assault. During the night the brave garrison of Gibraltar was relieved by Lord Howe's fleet from England, and the French and Spaniards relinquished the siege of the impregnable fortress.

The siege of Gibraltar was the last important event of the War of the American Revolution in Europe; but in the meantime the struggle had extended to India, where Hyder Ali, Sultan of Mysore, a soldier of fortune, had been engaged in hostilities with the English East India Company since 1767, but with little success until the War of American Independence, when he was aided by the French and the Dutch. After the English East India Company, during the administration of Warren Hastings, who had become Governor General of British India in 1773, had reduced all the French settlements in India and humbled the Mahrattas, Hyder Ali and his valiant son Tippoo Saib entered the Carnatic in 1780 with an army of a hundred thousand native Hindoos, aided by a French force, and attacked and annihilated the English forces in the presidency of Madras under Baillie and Fletcher, killing or capturing the whole force. Madras was in extreme danger of capture. In 1781 the English were reinforced; and the progress of Hyder Ali in the Carnatic was checked by Sir Eyre Coote, who recovered the Carnatic and totally routed Hyder Ali at the head of two hundred thousand men at Porto Novo, Cuddalore and Pallalore.

In 1782 the English captured Negapatam and all the Dutch settlements in India; but this success was interrupted by the defeat of Colonel Braithwaite, whose forces were surprised, surrounded and cut to pieces by a native force under Tippoo Saib and an auxiliary French force under M. Lally. In 1783 several indecisive actions occurred between the British fleet under Admiral Hughes and the French fleet under Bailli

de Suffrein in the Indian seas, but the operations on land were impeded by the jealousies of the civil and military authorities. Hyder Ali died in 1782, and was succeeded as Sultan of Mysore by his son Tippoo Saib, who, after the conclusion of peace between England and France in 1783, concluded a treaty with the English East India Company, in which the Company made humiliating concessions which detracted from the respect hitherto paid to the English name in India, A. D. 1784.

END OF THE WAR.

As we have seen, the surrender of Lord Cornwallis had fully convinced the English people of the folly and hopelessness of recovering the British dominion in North America; but Lord North's Ministry declared their determination to carry on "a war of posts." The nation at large opposed this foolish project; and Parliament, yielding to the voice of the English people, gradually withdrew its support from the administration. Finally, on March 4, 1782, on the motion of General Conway, the House of Commons voted that "whoever shall advise His Majesty to the continuation of the American war shall be considered a public enemy." This vote of want of confidence in the Ministry led to the immediate resignation of Lord North and his colleagues; whereupon a Whig Ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham came into power, pledged to the restoration of peace. A member of this Ministry was the great statesman Charles James Fox, an earnest friend of the Americans during the whole period of the war, and an opponent of the system of Parliamentary taxation of the colonies, which had led to the war.

The New Ministry immediately commenced negotiations for peace with all the belligerent powers at war with England, and sent orders to the British commanders in America to cease from hostilities against the Americans; but the negotiations were protracted for some months by the changes in the British Ministry, while hostilities were prosecuted with vigor between Great Britain and her European enemies until after the repulse of the French and Spaniards in the siege of Gibraltar, in September, 1782. The Marquis of Rockingham, whose administration was signalized by the concession of Ireland's legislative independence, died in July, 1782; whereupon the Earl of Shelburne became Prime Minister, which so displeased Mr. Fox and the larger Whig faction which he headed that he and his friends in the Ministry resigned.

Conferences for peace were opened at Paris, through the mediation of the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany and the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia; and, under the Ministry of the Earl of Shelburne, Great Britain concluded peace with the belligerent powers with which she had been at war. The United States appointed John Adams of Massachusetts, John Jay of New York, Dr. Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia and Henry Laurens of South Carolina to proceed to France as commissioners to conclude a treaty of peace with Great Britain; but Mr. Jefferson did not serve.

By the Preliminary Peace of Versailles, November 30, 1782, between England and the United States, the former acknowledged the independence of the latter. England concluded the Preliminary Peace of Paris with France and Spain, January 20, 1783; England and France restoring their respective conquests, except the island of Tobago, in the West Indies, and the forts on the river Senegal, in Africa, which were retained by France; while Spain kept Florida and the island of Minorca, but could not purchase Gibraltar, though she offered Oran, in Africa, and the island of Porto Rico, in the West Indies, in exchange. Though England unreservedly acknowledged the independence of the United States, she retained Canada, the Hudson's Bay Territory, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Labrador and Newfoundland. Finally, September 3, 1783, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Paris between the United States, Great Britain, France and Spain; and the United States became an ac-

knowledged power among the nations of the earth, with its boundaries extending northward to the Great Lakes and Canada, westward to the Mississippi, and southward to the Spanish possessions on the Gulf of Mexico, and obtained an unlimited right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland.

The preliminary treaty of peace between England and Holland was signed at Paris, September 3, 1783; but the definitive treaty between these two powers was not signed until May 20, 1784, when the Dutch ceded Negapatam to Great Britain, and granted to British subjects a free trade in the Indian seas in which the Dutch had hitherto maintained an exclusive commerce and navigation.

Although the establishment of American independence may have been galling to English pride, the United States as an independent republic were of far greater commercial value to the mother country than they had been as English colonies; while the overtaxed English people were relieved of the burden of supporting an extensive military establishment three thousand miles from home, and their material prosperity was thereby unhampered.

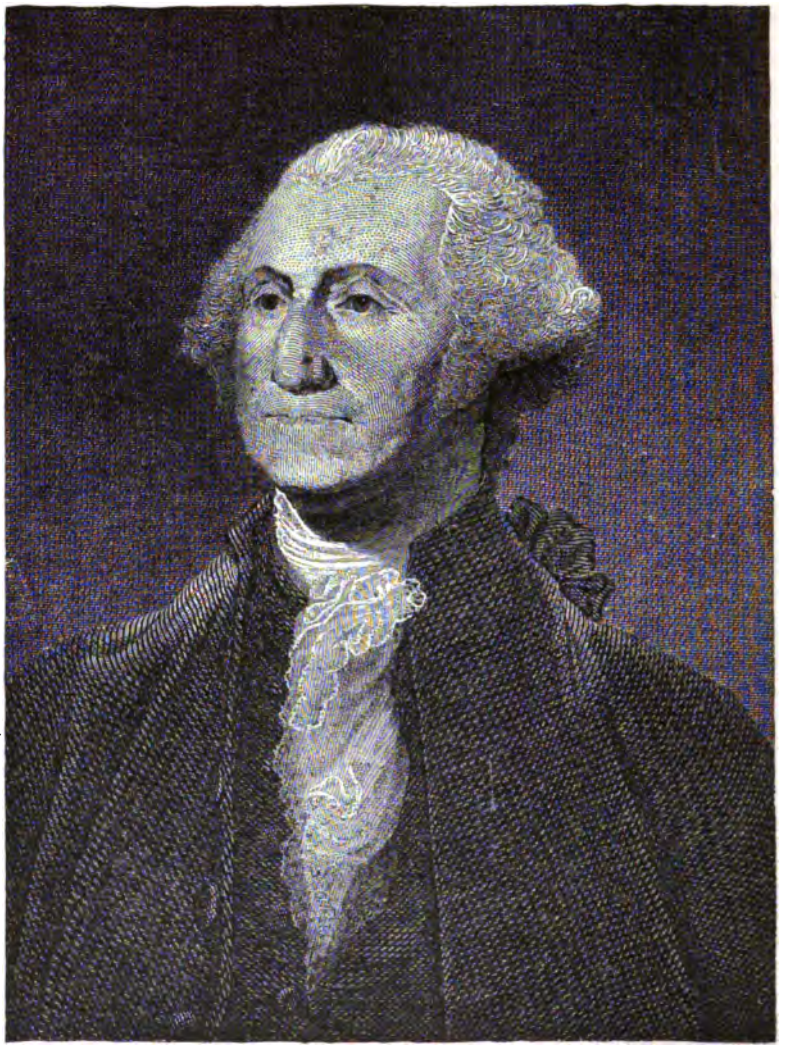
Says John Richard Green, the English historian: "What startled men most at the time was the discovery that England was not ruined by the loss of her colonies or by the completeness of her defeat. She rose from it indeed stronger and greater than ever. The next ten years saw a display of industrial activity such as the world had never witnessed before. During the twenty years which followed she wrestled almost single-handed against the energy of the French Revolution, as well as against the colossal force of Napoleonic tyranny, and came out of the one struggle unconquered and out of the other a conqueror. Never had England stood higher among the nations of the Old World than after Waterloo; but she was already conscious that her real greatness lay not in the Old World but in the New. From the moment of the Declaration of Independence it mattered little whether England counted for less or more with the nations around her. She was no longer a mere rival of Germany or Russia or France. She was from that hour a mother of nations. In America she had begotten a great people, and her emigrant ships were still to carry on the movement of the Teutonic race from which she she herself had sprung. Her work was to be colonization. Her settlers were to dispute Africa with the Kaffir and the Hottentot, to wrest New Zealand from the Maori, to sow on the shores of Australia the seeds of great nations. And to these nations she was to give not only her blood and her speech, but the freedom which she had won. It is the thought of this which flings its grandeur around the pettiest details of our story in the past. The history of France has little result beyond France itself. German or Italian history has no direct issue outside the bounds of Germany or Italy. But England is only a small part of the outcome of English history. Its greatest issue lies not within the narrow limits of the mother island, but in the destinies of nations yet to be. The struggles of her patriots, the wisdom of her statesmen, the steady love of liberty and law in her people at large, were shaping in the past of our little island the future of mankind."

The British evacuated Savannah on the 11th of July, 1782; Charleston on the 14th of December of the same year; and New York on the 25th of November, 1783. The joy of the Americans at the return of peace was mingled with gloomy apprehensions of coming evil, foreshadowed in the murmurings of the unpaid soldiers, the condition of the public finances, and the jealousies of the States. The soldiers had been unpaid for a long time, because the national treasury was empty. Crafty men encouraged the discontent of the army by charging Congress with neglect; and in the spring of 1783 an anonymous address was circulated in Washington's camp at Newburg, on the Hudson, advising the army to take matters into its own hands, and to obtain justice by making a demonstration that should arouse the fears of the American

people and Congress; but Washington's great influence and sagacity induced the officers to desist from their purpose, and thus a threatening cloud was dispelled in a few days.

A cessation of hostilities was proclaimed in Washington's army at Newburg on the eighth anniversary of the skirmish at Lexington, April 19, 1783. On June 19, 1783, many of the officers at Newburg met and formed a permanent association known as the *Society of the Cincinnati*, electing Washington the first president of the society, and selecting as their emblem a gold eagle suspended on a ribbon, on the breast of which was a medallion with a device representing Cincinnatus receiving the Roman Senators.

On the 3d of November, 1783, the American army was disbanded; and the American soldiers returned to their homes, to enjoy the freedom which their valor had won, and to receive the grateful benedictions of their countrymen. After an affectionate parting with his officers in New York City, on the 4th of December, Washington proceeded to Annapolis, in Maryland, where the Congress was in session; and on the 23d of December (1783) he resigned into the hands



WASHINGTON.
[Original painting by Stuart for the Marquis of Lansdowne.]

of that body his commission of commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, in a simple and touching address, to which an equally affecting response was made by the President of the Congress, General Thomas Mifflin of Pennsylvania. Washington then returned to his farm at Mount Vernon, on the banks of the Potomac, carrying with him the esteem and gratitude of his countrymen, and the admiration of the world. Thus Washington, like Cincinnatus, after delivering his country from its enemies, returned to private life.

Says John Richard Green, the English historian, concerning Washington: "No nobler figure ever stood in the forefront of a nation's life. Washington was grave and courteous in address; his manners were simple and unpretending; his silence and the serene calmness of his temper spoke of a perfect self-mastery; but there was little in his outer bearing to reveal the grandeur of soul which lifts his figure, with all the simple majesty of an ancient statue, out of the smaller passions, the meaner impulses of the world around him. What recommended him for command as yet was simply his weight among his fellow-landowners of Virginia, and the experience of war which he had gained by service in Braddock's luckless expedition against Fort Duquesne. It was only as the weary fight went on that the colonists learned little by little the greatness of their leader—his clear judgment, his heroic endurance, his silence under difficulties, his calmness in the hour of danger or defeat, the patience with which he waited, the quickness and hardness with which he struck, the lofty and serene sense of duty that never swerved from its task through resentment or jealousy, that never through war or peace felt the touch of a meaner ambition, that knew no aim save that of guarding the freedom of his fellow-countrymen, and no personal longing save that of returning to his own fireside when their freedom was secured. It was almost unconsciously that men learned to cling to Washington with a trust and faith such as few other men have won, and to regard him with a reverence which still hushes us in presence of his memory. Even America hardly recognized his real grandeur till death set its seal on 'the man first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen.' Washington, more than any of his fellow-colonists, represented the clinging of the Virginia landowners to the mother country, and his acceptance of the command proved that even the most moderate among them had no hope now save in arms."

THE WASHINGTON FAMILY.

The Washington family belonged to the gentry of England, and was more than seven centuries old. The founder of the family in England was Thorfin the Dane, Earl of the Orkney Isles, also called Torkill of Richmondshire, England, Baron and Lord of Tanfield, who was one of the Danish Sea-kings who ravaged England for two centuries during the reigns of its Anglo-Saxon kings, and was said to have been descended from the Scandinavian god Odin through the royal line of Denmark in thirty-two generations. Thorfin the Dane was born about A. D. 1010, and settled in Yorkshire, England, about 1030 or 1035, about three decades before the Norman Conquest of England.

The Washington family derives its name from the village of Wassington, near Ravensworth, now called Wharleton, in the parish of Kirkby-Ravensworth, in the North Riding of Yorkshire. As the family multiplied in succeeding generations it spread from Yorkshire into Lancashire, Leicestershire, Northamptonshire, Buckinghamshire, Warwickshire and Kent. The old home of the Washingtons at the village of Sulgrave, in Northamptonshire, England, is still standing; and the house was built by Hon. Laurence Washington, Mayor of Northampton, about A. D. 1564. It is also said that America was discovered by relatives of Thorfin the Dane, the progenitor of the Washington family, about five centuries before Columbus landed on its shores.

Colonel Sir Henry Washington fought on the king's side during the civil war between Charles I. and Parliament, leading a storming party at Bristol and defending Worcester against the Parliamentary forces in 1646.

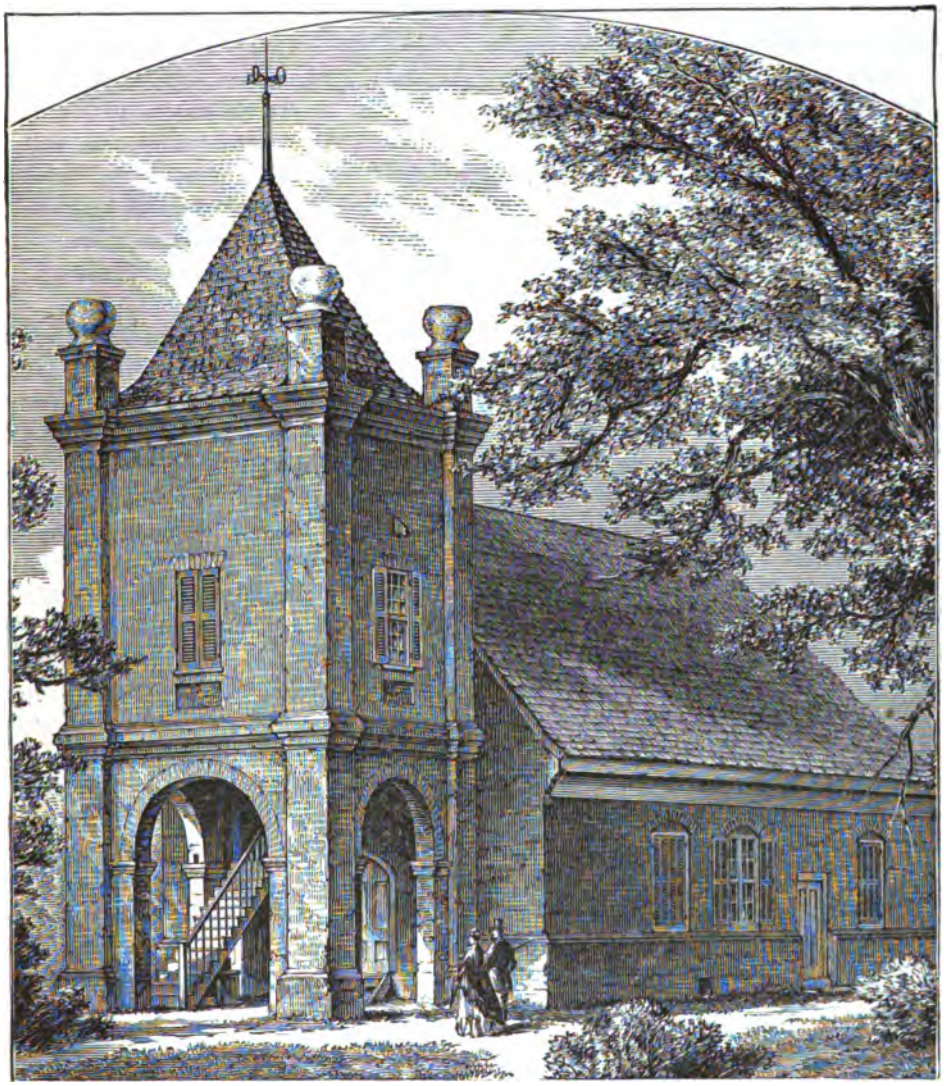
General George Washington was descended from Thorfin the Dane through twenty-three generations, and was the great-grandson of Colonel John Washington, who, with his brother Laurence Washington, emigrated from Wharton, Lancashire, England, to America in 1659, and settled in Westmoreland County, Virginia, where the illustrious American Revolutionary commander-in-chief was born February 22, 1732.

As his ancestors had belonged to the landed gentry of England, so General Washington belonged to the aristocratic landholding class of Virginia, which in its political and social conditions was more like the mother country than any other of the Anglo-American colonies. The landholders were the first of the four classes of Virginia society.

General Washington was educated chiefly by his mother; his father, Augustine Washington, having died when his son was only ten years old. George became a surveyor and was early inured to hardships and filled with a knowledge of the forest and of the Indian character, which became of much service to him. While still a youth he was about to enlist as a midshipman in the Brit-

MARTHA WASHINGTON AT THE AGE OF TWENTY-FOUR.
[From a painting by Woolaston.]

ish navy, but his mother's opposition caused him to remain at home; and the family estate of Mt. Vernon was named after the British Admiral Vernon, under whom his elder brother, Captain Laurence Washington, had served in the unfortunate expedition against the Spanish town of Carthagena, in South America, in 1740. George Washington married a widow, Mrs. Martha Custis, and died without leaving any offspring. After his service in the French and Indian War he was for some time a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses; and he was delegate from Virginia to the First and Second Continental Congresses, being a member of the Second Continental Congress when that body appointed him commander-in-chief of the American armies. At his death he was worth eight hundred thousand dollars, and was in his time next to the richest man in the United States.



ST. PETER'S CHURCH, WHERE WASHINGTON WAS MARRIED.
[By permission of Magazine of American History.]

"Of all the noble families of England that of Washington is the most ancient and one of the most illustrious. Tracing back through the royal line of Denmark to that great hero king Odin, the founder of Scan-

dinavia, B. C. 70, whose life and character were so great and glorious that his people deified himself and family, and thus established a Scandinavian mythology of equal magnitude and grandeur with that of ancient Greece and Egypt, and of such minuteness in detail as to have confused some historians who were unable to separate the real from the mythological history. The remarkable resemblance of character between Odin and his descendant Washington, separated by a period of eighteen centuries, is so great as to excite the profound and devout astonishment of the genealogical student—one the founder of the most eminent race of kings and conquerors, and the other of the grand republic of America."

CONDITION OF THE UNITED STATES.

At the close of the War of the American Revolution most of the thirteen original States had assumed their present limits. New Hampshire, for a long time claiming jurisdiction over Vermont, had yielded her claim to New York, and had taken the Connecticut river as her western boundary. Massachusetts still exercised jurisdiction over Maine, but had arranged her western boundary with New York as at present, accepting the proprietorship of large tracts of land in Western New York in satisfaction of the claim of her charter to territory farther west. Rhode Island and Connecticut had boundaries essentially the same as at present; Connecticut retaining, of all her claims under her charter, only a part of her territory south of Lake Erie, known as the Connecticut Reserve, which now forms the north-eastern portion of the State of Ohio. New York claimed Vermont with the rest of her present territory. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland had their present limits. Virginia included Kentucky, and North Carolina included Tennessee. South Carolina had her present limits, and Georgia claimed all of the present Alabama and Mississippi that then belonged to the United States.

There had been little increase in the population of the United States during the War of the American Revolution; as immigration almost ceased, and as many men had fallen in battle, while many Tories left the country, some of them founding the province of Canada West, now Ontario.

When the Revolution had commenced, the Americans were chiefly farmers, merchants, mechanics and fishermen, who were engaged in the ordinary duties of their respective occupations, and were sober, honest and industrious. But when the struggle for independence had begun, new fields for exertion were opened, and a great change suddenly came about in the American people. Many who had previously been known only in the humble sphere of peaceful callings soon exhibited talents for war or statesmanship.

The war also did much to extinguish local peculiarities and prejudices, but also introduced a greater laxity of manners and morals. An army always carries deep vices in its train, and communicates its corruption to society. The failure of the public credit through the depreciation of the Continental Money so far disabled individuals to fulfill their private engagements that the breach of such engagements became very general, and was at length not considered dishonorable. Thus that high sense of integrity which had previously existed was exchanged for more loose and slippery notions of honor and honesty, but after the return of peace things returned somewhat to their former condition. Those sober habits for which the Americans had been formerly distinguished began to return. Business assumed a more regular and equitable character, and the tumultuous passions excited by the war subsided.

The frequent intercourse between different portions of the country promoted by the war had softened sectarian prejudices, and had almost extinguished the spirit of intolerance; but the war had also introduced irreligion and infidelity. The atheistical philosophy which had spread over France was communicated to the American army by the French allies, thus tending to produce a serious decline in the tone of religious feel-

ing among the American people. Thus the atheistical writings of Voltaire, Rousseau and others spread in the United States with alarming rapidity; and there were American writers of infidel works, such as Colonel Ethan Allen of Vermont, whose *Oracles of Reason* had already appeared, and Thomas Paine, who had come to America from England at the beginning of the war and had supported the American cause by such writings as *Common Sense* and the *Crisis*, and who had afterward written his celebrated skeptical work, the *Age of Reason*, whose effects were long felt in the country. Religious institutions suffered much neglect during the war; as churches were often demolished, or converted into barracks; while public worship was frequently suspended. After the war there was a revival of religion, and infidelity began to lose some ground. During this period Methodism was introduced into the United States from England, and increased rapidly, especially in the Middle States, producing beneficial effects upon society.

Education also suffered during the war, along with other kindred interests. The course of instruction was suspended in several colleges. Professor and student turned soldiers. Common schools, which had before been fostered by the state, the church or the family, were neglected during the war, and in many instances were entirely overlooked and allowed to perish. But after the war there was a revival of interest in education, and in a few years several colleges and other institutions of learning were established in various portions of the United States. During this period there was much added to the political and other literature of the English language in the United States.

The writings of American soldiers and statesmen were almost as important as their actions in the field or in the cabinet. There were other writers who were conspicuous solely by their literary efforts. Such was the Englishman Thomas Paine, whose pamphlet called *Common Sense*, which appeared in 1776, as already noticed, had contributed largely to preparing the American people for independence. His other pamphlets, issued during the next few years of the war under the name of the *Crisis*, were of equal influence on the American cause. John Trumbull of Connecticut wrote a poem called *McFingal*, which was a satire upon his countrymen and their foes. Francis Hopkinson of Philadelphia was the author of various productions in prose and poetry relating to the war, and Philip Freneau of New York wrote popular poems upon the battles of the Revolution. The influence of this literature was felt in spreading the spirit of the camp and of the council around the fireside and within the closet, arousing sympathy, exciting action, and thus contributing vastly to the national redemption. William Billings of Boston was the first of American musical composers, and such was his enthusiasm for his art and for his country that he moved many a spirit by his ardent strains. His melodies were heard on the march and on the battle-field as well as in the choir, and such as his *Independence* and his *Columbia* may be called psalms of the Revolution and the Constitution.

During the war American commerce ceased, but it revived when peace returned. Most of the American shipping was destroyed by the British during the war, or perished by a natural process of decay. The coasts of the United States were so lined with British cruisers that navigation became too hazardous to be pursued to any considerable extent. During the first two years after the return of peace the imports from England alone amounted to thirty million dollars, while the exports of the United States to England were only from eight million to nine million dollars.

At this period arts and manufactures made considerable progress in the United States. As the American people had been cut off by the war from foreign sources they had been obliged to depend upon their own industry and ingenuity to furnish articles required by the struggle and by the usual occupations of life. When peace returned, many branches of manufacture had become so firmly established that they held their

ground, even against the large importations immediately following.

During the war agriculture was greatly interrupted by the withdrawal of laborers to the camp and by the distractions which disturbed all the occupations of society. But within a few years after the return of peace the exports of agricultural products from the United States were again considerable. About the year 1783 attention began to be directed to the culture of cotton in the Southern States, and that agricultural product became a staple in that portion of the country. Agricultural societies began to be formed in the United States about the same time.

Slavery, so directly in opposition to the rights of man for which the War of Independence had been waged, and in violation of the principles enunciated in the Declaration of Independence, by which the revolt had been justified to mankind, remained undisturbed in all the States until near the end of the war; but in the meantime all the States except South Carolina and Georgia had prohibited the further importation of slaves, while the New England States and Pennsylvania had taken measures for the final abolition of slavery within their respective borders, and their example was followed not many years afterward by New York and New Jersey. The wisest and best men of the time, both in the North and in the South, looked forward with confidence and hope to the speedy extinction of an institution so repugnant to the principles of Christian civilization and so fraught with danger to society, religion and the state; but, unfortunately, slavery became firmly established in the States south of Mason's and Dixon's Line and the Ohio river.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

When the War of American Independence was ended, and external dangers had passed away, the Americans perceived that the Articles of Confederation allowed the exercise of too much sovereign and independent power by the States, and too little by the Congress, thus preventing a Union of States sufficiently strong to entitle the American people to the character or rank of a nation. The Congress had no power to dispose of the immense foreign and domestic debt with which the country was burdened; and the States, all financially exhausted by the war, found it extremely difficult to provide means for the payment of the soldiers of the Revolution.

So weak was the general government, and so disordered were the national finances, that Robert Morris of Philadelphia, the Superintendent of Finance, by whose personal efforts and financial aid the United States had been able to carry on the struggle with Great Britain during the last years of the war, resigned in despair after a year of peace. His creation of the *Bank of North America* at Philadelphia in 1781 was recommended by Congress to the States, with the request that branches should be established; but all in vain. Robert Morris, who was a wealthy Philadelphia merchant, afterward lost his immense fortune by land speculations in Western New York, and died a poor man in 1806.

In 1783 Congress renewed its petition to the States for power to impose a duty on imports for a limited period. After long delay Congress made a fresh appeal to the States with really piteous representations of the national insolvency. New York refused to comply upon the terms proposed, and Congress was again humiliated, A. D. 1786. Congress also asked the States for authority over the foreign commerce of the country. Such was the urgency that Congress appointed a commission to negotiate treaties with the European powers, A. D. 1784; but the States denied the supplications of Congress on this point, although a treaty was made with Prussia in 1785, which contained sufficient substance for a score of old treaties in prohibiting privateering and sustaining the liberty of neutral commerce in case of war.

The States were absorbed in their own troubles. The debts of the Confederation were a heavy burden upon them, as well as their own State debts. Their citizens were

impoverished, and maddened by their public and private burdens and calamities. At Exeter, New Hampshire, in 1786, the Assembly of that State was assailed by an armed mob of two hundred men demanding an issue of paper money. The rioters held possession of the Assembly chamber, but early in the evening they were dispersed by a rumor that Exeter was arming against them.

Some of the States followed the advice of Congress to bear their proportions of the public debt and to uphold their credit. This led to an outbreak in Massachusetts in the winter of 1786–'87, known as *Shays's Insurrection*, so called from its leader, Daniel Shays, formerly a captain in the American army. In the western counties of that State the courts of law were closed by armed mobs for the purpose of preventing the collection of debts and taxes. So general was the sympathy with the insurgents in Massachusetts and adjoining States that twelve or fifteen thousand men were supposed to be ready to join them. Almost two thousand men were in arms at the beginning of 1787. There was intense horror in the rest of the country. Congress ordered troops to be raised; but, as it had no power to interfere with the States, it set up the pretext of Indian hostilities. Governor James Bowdoin of Massachusetts sent about four thousand militia under General Benjamin Lincoln against the insurgents under Daniel Shays. The insurgents had attacked the arsenal at Springfield, but were driven back; whereupon they retreated to Petersham, where they were totally routed and dispersed. Fourteen of the ringleaders were convicted of treason and condemned to death, but all were finally pardoned. The insurrection lasted from August, 1786, to February, 1787.

There were many internal troubles in the States. Vermont, which had been claimed by New Hampshire and New York, and which had declared itself an independent State in 1777, was still denied admission to the Union by Congress. A body of settlers in Wyoming Valley in Pennsylvania, chiefly emigrants from New England, held their land grants from the State of Connecticut, which had long claimed the territory. When Connecticut relinquished her claims to Pennsylvania, and the latter State insisted upon new titles to the Wyoming settlements, the settlers armed themselves and threatened to set up a State of their own, A. D. 1782–1787. The western counties of North Carolina—now included in the State of Tennessee—when ceded to the United States in 1784, organized an independent State under the title of Franklin, or Frankland; but the people were divided in opinion; and Colonel Sevier, the governor, of King's Mountain fame, was driven from the territory in 1788 by the opponents of an independent State government. In the meantime the western counties of Virginia—now comprised in the State of Kentucky—petitioned the Virginia Legislature for independence; and Virginia consented to the independence of Kentucky on certain conditions, A. D. 1785–'86. Kentucky vainly petitioned Congress for admission into the Union, A. D. 1787–'88. Maine again strove to become independent of Massachusetts, A. D. 1786. There were disputes between State and State.

The territory north of the Ohio, east of the Mississippi and south of the Great Lakes—embracing the present States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin—had been claimed by the States of New York, Virginia, Connecticut and Massachusetts; while the territory south of Ohio, east of the Mississippi and north of the Spanish possessions on the Gulf of Mexico belonged to Virginia, North Carolina and Georgia.

Congress induced most of the States to relinquish their claims to the regions so remote from themselves. New York was the first to abandon her pretensions, and Virginia followed her example; whereupon Thomas Jefferson, then a delegate from Virginia in the Continental Congress, proposed a plan for the division and organization of the entire western territory. His proposed prohibition of slavery in the new territory

was instantly rejected by Congress, but otherwise his plan was adopted, April, 1784. As the cessions of the States claiming the whole of that vast region were not yet completed, the organization of the territory was postponed until the national title to the lands could be made complete. Massachusetts ceded her claims to the United States in 1785, and Connecticut ceded her pretensions in 1786, the latter with a reservation. The Indian titles to the western territories were partially disposed of by treaties with the various tribes, A. D. 1784–1786.

After these cessions had established the claim of the nation upon the region north of the Ohio, east of the Mississippi and south of the Great Lakes, that vast domain was erected by an ordinance of Congress into the *North-west Territory*, July 13, 1787. This ordinance intrusted the government of the territory partly to officers appointed by Congress, and partly to an assembly chosen by the settlers as soon as they should number five thousand. The inhabitants and the authorities were alike bound to the observance of certain articles of compact between the old States and the new ones that might arise within the territory. The articles provided for religious liberty, habeas corpus, trial by jury and kindred privileges, and for the encouragement of religion and education, for justice toward the Indians, for the equal rights and responsibilities of the new States and the old ones, and for the prohibition of slavery by the following ordinance of Congress, borrowed from Jefferson's plan submitted to Congress three years previously: "There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in punishment of crimes."

Under so liberal an organization, surveys, sales and settlements quickly followed in the North-west Territory. A colony from New England under General Rufus Putnam made the first settlement within that part of the North-west Territory now forming the State of Ohio, at Marietta, on the Ohio river, in 1788. Cincinnati was founded a few years later, and in 1796 General Moses Cleveland of Connecticut founded the beautiful city on Lake Erie bearing his name.

In 1786 the Northern and Central States, sustained by General Washington, were willing to surrender the navigation of the Mississippi to Spain, which then owned all the region west of that great river, in return for a treaty of commerce with that power. In 1787 Jefferson, then United States Minister to France, wrote: "The act which abandons the navigation of the Mississippi is an act of separation between the eastern and western country."

The peaceful relations of the United States and Great Britain were disturbed. The peace of 1783 required the surrender of the Western military posts by Great Britain, but the United States was also required by that treaty to provide for the immense debts due to British merchants. This obligation Congress was unable to fulfill, and the States were unwilling. Five States undertook to prevent the collection of British debts. Therefore, when John Adams, the first United States Minister to Great Britain, entered into a negotiation with that power for the recovery of the Western military posts still in British hands, the British government under the younger William Pitt at once demanded that the American part of the treaty should also be fulfilled, A. D. 1786. Congress vainly addressed a remonstrance to the States concerning their infraction of the treaty of 1783, but all to no purpose, A. D. 1787.

Lafayette wrote: "The consideration felt for America by Europe is diminishing to a degree truly painful; and what has been gained by the Revolution is in danger of being lost little by little, at least during an interval of trial to all the friends of the nation." Washington wrote: "I am mortified beyond expression when I view the clouds that have spread over the brightest morn that ever dawned upon any country."

But the old foundations stood secure amid this tottering of the national system. The laws that had been laid deep in the past, the social and political institutions that had been

reared above them, remained to support the uncertainties of the time. Every strong principle of the mother country, every broad reform of the colonies, contributed to the strength and development of the struggling nation.

But the States, in forming and reforming their constitutions, established many a new principle previously undeveloped. Pennsylvania voted an indemnity to the proprietary family whose dominion she had renounced—a recognition of rights belonging to rulers never before made by subjects in a successful revolution. The colonies, led by Georgia, gradually prohibited the claim of the eldest son to a double share of his father's property and to the prerogatives of primogeniture. New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Delaware and South Carolina extended the suffrage from holders of real or personal property to all tax-paying freemen; and North Carolina partially did the same. Personal liberty was extended and protected. The class of indentured servants diminished; and, as we have seen, slavery was altogether abolished in the States north of Mason's and Dixon's Line, while the slave trade was forbidden by all the States except South Carolina and Georgia. Societies were formed in many localities to quicken the action of the authorities. In making such exertions and upholding such principles, the young nation was proving its title to independence. The majority of the State constitutions allowed full religious liberty, even conservative Rhode Island repealing the prohibitory statute against Roman Catholics, A. D. 1784. A few restrictions remained in the Puritan States, where payment of church taxes and the attendance upon services in some church or other were enforced, and where particular forms of religious faith were required from the magistrates, if not from the citizens; some of the States excluding Roman Catholics from office.

The dangers to which the young nation was exposed by its loose system of government—this mere league of States, as formed by the Articles of Confederation—induced thoughtful men to devise a more consolidated system. As early as 1780 the youthful Alexander Hamilton of New York conceived the idea of a convention of all the States to frame a national constitution. Other men advocated the same measure publicly or privately. The New York Legislature supported it in 1782, and the Massachusetts Legislature supported it in 1785.

In 1785 commissioners from Maryland and Virginia met at Alexandria, Virginia, for the purpose of regulating the navigation of the Chesapeake and the Potomac. They also met at Mount Vernon. One of the commissisners from Virginia was James Madison, who suggested that commissioners with additional powers be appointed, with the assent of Congress, to act in instituting a tariff for Maryland and Virginia. The commission recommended Madison's plan, and the Virginia Legislature appointed commissioners to meet others from all the States and "to take into consideration the trade of the United States."

In accordance with Virginia's recommendation, a convention of delegates from five States assembled at Annapolis, in Maryland, in September, 1786, to establish a better system of commercial regulations; but they did more. At the proposal of Alexander Hamilton, one of the delegates from New York, the Annapolis Convention recommended a national convention to meet at Philadelphia the next May, "to take into consideration the situation of the United States, to devise such further provisions as shall appear necessary to render the constitution of the federal government adequate to the exigencies of the Union, and to report such an act for that purpose to the United States in Congress assembled, as, when agreed to by them, and afterwards confirmed by the Legislature of every State, will effectually provide for the same."

Virginia was the first State to act upon the proposal of the Annapolis Convention. The Legislature of that great State issued a call to her sister States to join with her in forming a more perfect union, and appointed

delegates to join with those of the other States "in devising and discussing all such alterations and provisions as may be necessary to render the federal constitution adequate to the exigencies of the Union."

Virginia's example was promptly followed by New Jersey, Pennsylvania, North Carolina and Delaware. In February, 1787, Congress, acting independently of this movement of the States, summoned a convention of all the States "for the sole and express purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation." All the States except Rhode Island appointed delegates. Some of these delegates were instructed to support the liberal views of Virginia to form a new constitution. Others were instructed to act on the narrower suggestion of Congress. Delaware positively required her delegates to maintain the right of that small State to an equal vote with each of the other States in any government that might be framed.

The convention assembled in the State House, in Philadelphia, in May, 1787. Thus the same historic hall in which the Declaration of Independence had been adopted was chosen for the sessions of the Constitutional Convention. At the appointed day only Virginia and Pennsylvania were represented in the Convention, May 14, 1787. By the 25th (May, 1787) only seven States were represented, and these opened the Convention and elected Washington president of the assemblage. The Convention gradually filled up with delegates from all the States but Rhode Island, but those from New Hampshire did not arrive until July 23d.

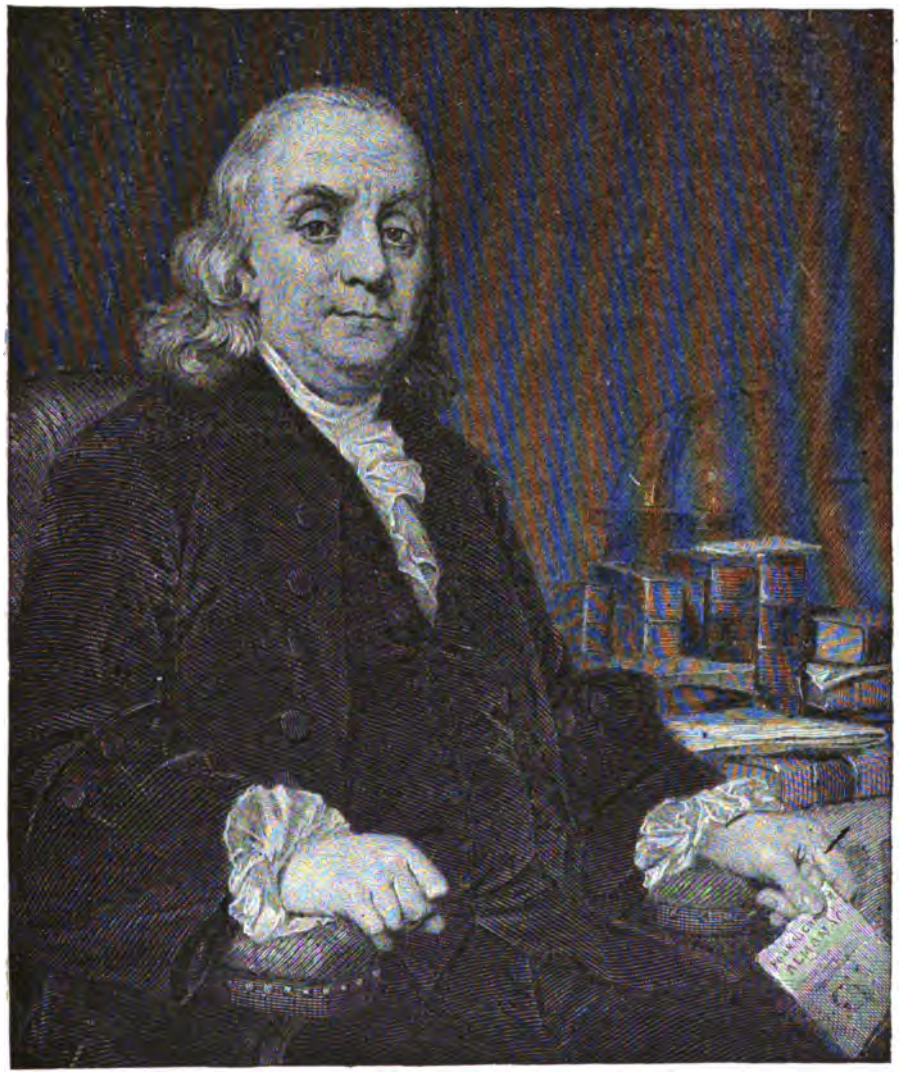
In that Constitutional Convention the interests of classes and of sections, and the prejudices of narrow politicians and of selfish men, obtruded themselves; and many of the members were unequal to the national duties of the Convention. But some of the greatest patriots and ablest men of the country were also there. Among the prominent names of the Convention were Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts, Roger Sherman and Oliver Ellsworth of Connecticut, Alexander Hamilton of New York, Jonathan Dayton and William Paterson of New Jersey, Dr. Benjamin Franklin, General Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris and Gouverneur Morris of Pennsylvania, John Dickinson of Delaware, Luther Martin of Maryland, General George Washington, Governor Edmund Randolph and James Madison of Virginia, and John Rutledge, Charles Pinckney and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney of South Carolina. There were various members of the Stamp Act Congress, of the Continental Congress that declared the independence of the United States, and of the various Congresses under the Articles of Confederation. Among the signers of the Declaration of Independence were Elbridge Gerry, Roger Sherman, Benjamin Franklin and Robert Morris.

The rules of the Convention ordered secrecy of debate and the right of each State to an equal vote. Edmund Randolph of Virginia opened the deliberations on May 29th by offering a series of resolutions proposing a national legislature of two branches, a national executive, and a national judiciary of supreme and inferior tribunals. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney of South Carolina offered a plan of government based on the same principle as Governor Randolph's, but developed with greater detail. Both plans were referred to a committee of the whole, but Randolph's plan occupied the debate. A fortnight later the committee reported in favor of Randolph's plan. William Paterson of New Jersey then proposed a plan for a government of more limited powers. Randolph's and Paterson's plans were both referred to a committee of the whole.

Alexander Hamilton of New York, who had no faith in the people, and who was an avowed monarchist, proposed a plan of his own. His belief in monarchy and his lack of faith in popular government were afterward expressed thus: "There is no stability in any government but monarchy." His partiality for a privileged aristocracy was well shown in such expressions as these in a speech in the Convention: "The British Constitution is the best model that the world has ever produced. * * * Give the rich

and well-born a permanent share in the government. You can not have a good executive on the democratic plan." Hamilton's plan proposed a national government, of which the executive and the higher branch of the legislature, as well as the judiciary, should all be elected to serve during good behavior or life. Hamilton confessed that his plan was "very-remote from the idea of the people." He looked upon popular government as the rule of the mob. His proposal was not considered by the Convention, which was divided on the question as to whether Randolph's or Paterson's plan should be adopted.

In the Constitutional Convention, as in the Annapolis Convention, a difference of opinion was clearly evident between the advocates of a republic and those of a monarchy; but, as the friends of republican government were largely in the majority, the monarchical party confined their efforts to obstruction merely, and to delay, in everything proposed. The monarchists under their great leader, Alexander Hamilton, the ablest man in the Convention,



DR. BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

hoped that if nothing was done and all things should go from bad to worse, a kingly government might be usurped, and submitted to by the people, as better than anarchy and civil and foreign wars, which would be the certain consequences of the existing want of a general government. It was the effect of their maneuvers before the Constitutional Convention which resulted in the measure of calling that assemblage. By preventing a government of concord, which they foresaw would be republican, the monarchists endeavored to force their way through anarchy to monarchy. But the great majority of the Convention were too thoroughly republican to be baffled and misled by the maneuvers of the monarchists.

Hamilton proposed a form of government which would have been practically a compromise between royalty and republicanism. His plan was to have the executive and one branch of the legislative body to remain in power during life or good behavior, and to have the governors of the States to be appointed by these two permanent national departments. When this plan was rejected by the Convention, Hamilton left in anger, and did not return until near its close. These secret and avowed opinions and efforts of the advocates of monarchy had caused the great jealousy through the States which developed into the strong suspicion of the designs of the Constitutional Convention—a jealousy which finally manifested itself in a general determination to establish certain Amendments of the Constitution as safeguards against a monarchical or consolidated government.

There was a difference of opinion in the Convention as to its powers. Some of the members contended that the Convention could do no more than revise the Articles of Confederation; and these favored Mr. Paterson's plan, and were called the federal party. The members opposed to this plan maintained that the necessity of a national government was sufficient to authorize the Convention to frame one, even if the power had not been expressly delegated to it. These members, called the national party, urged their view the more, as the Convention would not create the new government, but simply recommended it to the nation. The national party favored Governor Randolph's plan. As the federal or the national party prevailed, so followed the fate of Paterson's and Randolph's plans, and even of the Constitution and the nation. The turning point of the Convention was therefore when the committee of the whole again reported in favor of Randolph's plan. The labors of construction and of detail were all to be gone through. But the one guiding and assuring principle of a national system was gained.

Parties in the Convention were very distinctly defined by this time. The delegates of the small States generally took the federal side, while those of the large States usually advocated the national plan. Whatever was upheld by the large States, especially by Virginia, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, was opposed by the small States, which appeared to be in constant dread of the dominion which they supposed that the large States would exercise to the disadvantage of the inferior States. The breach between the two parties widened when the Convention declared in favor of the national plan, as proposed by Randolph. Within ten days afterward Dr. Franklin, shocked by the altercations in the Convention, arose and said: "Mr. President, How has it happened, sir, that while groping so long in the dark, divided in our opinions, and now ready to separate without accomplishing the great objects of our meeting, that we have not hitherto once thought of humbly applying to the Father of Lights to illuminate our understanding? In the beginning of the contest with Britain, when we were sensible of danger, we had daily prayers in this room for divine protection. Our prayers, sir, were heard, and they were graciously answered." After a few more remarks, Franklin moved that "henceforth, prayers, imploring the assistance of Heaven and its blessings on our deliberations, be held in this assembly every morning before we proceed to business." The resolution was not

adopted; as the Convention, excepting a very few delegates, thought prayers unnecessary; and as there were no funds to pay the expenses of such clerical services.

The federal party argued that the only principle of sovereignty was the government by States, and that recourse must be had to this principle for the existence of a government for the nation. They therefore assumed the name of federal, implying the support of a league of the States, as the proper form of a general government. The national party maintained that the Convention derived its power from the people of the United States to frame a Constitution; that the Convention was assembled to frame a Constitution for the people, and not for the States; and that the people, not the States, are to be governed and united. With a few exceptions, the national party did not deny the excellence of State governments. They maintained that these State governments are precisely what are needed to manage the local affairs of the various parts of the country, in which capacity the States will be truly pillars of the Union.

These different opinions had entered largely into the debates already decided by the adoption of Edmund Randolph's national plan for the Constitution. These same views were again brought forward with increased earnestness in relation to a question now presented for decision. In the Continental Congress, both before and during the period of the Articles of Confederation, the votes of the States had been equal; each State having but one vote, and no more. As already noticed, this was the rule of the Convention; but when the point was reached in the debates on the details of the Constitution the national party insisted upon an entirely different plan, asserting that the votes to be taken in the legislative branches of the new national government are not the votes of the States, but the votes of the people of the United States, and that these votes should therefore be given according to the numbers of the people, not of the States. The federal party, which had opposed the national plan on this very account, insisted on the equal votes of the States, fearing that their small States with their few votes would be utterly absorbed by the large States. Delaware sent her delegates with express instructions to reserve her equal vote in the national legislature.

The federal party, already defeated, was destined to another defeat. Expressing its willingness to abandon the claim of an equal vote in both branches of the national legislature, it stood resolutely for equality in the proposed upper branch of that legislature—the United States Senate. But even this moderate demand was disregarded by the majority of the Convention, bent upon unequal votes in both branches of the national legislature. Great agitation followed. A delegate from a small State exclaimed with indignation: "We will sooner submit to a foreign power!" The question was referred to a committee, which, at Franklin's suggestion, adopted a compromise, giving the States equal votes in the Senate. But for this compromise the Convention would have broken up in confusion, and its work would have come to a sudden close.

Even as it was, the report of the committee scarcely allayed the tumultuous passions that had been aroused. It but partially satisfied the small States; while it aroused the anger of the large ones, as these latter had supposed themselves secure upon the point which they were thus obliged to yield. Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts said: "If no compromise should take place, what will be the consequence? A secession will take place, for some gentlemen seem decided on it." The federal party was the one that threatened secession. The national party as unwisely threatened to dismember and absorb the small States, by the sword if necessary. Two of the New York delegates, incensed or dejected by the triumphant course of the national party, retired from the Convention. Said Luther Martin of Maryland afterward: "We were on the verge of dissolution, scarce held together by the strength of a hair." Fortunately peace was preserved by the ac-

ceptance of the compromise by both parties; so that the States were to have equal representation in the Senate, and to be unequally represented according to population in the House of Representatives.

There was a great division in the Convention on the slavery question between the delegates from the North and those from the South. This system was abolished or about to be abolished in all the States north of Mason's and Dixon's Line, but was still maintained in the States south of that line. The first struggle upon the slavery question arose in regard to the apportionment of representation. It was to be decided how the people of the United States were to be represented in the House of Representatives, the popular branch of the proposed national legislature—in what proportions, and in what classes. The great question was whether slaves should be included with freemen in making up the number of Southern people entitled to representation, while at the same time these slaves should not be entitled to vote. The extreme party of the South said that the slaves must be included in such apportionment of representation, as they were as valuable as the free laborers of the North. The extreme party of the North declared that the slaves should never be taken into account as long as they were not emancipated, as they ought to be. This question also threatened to break up the Convention, and was also settled by compromise. The moderate delegates from the North and the South came together, and agreed that three-fifths of the slave population should be enumerated with the whites in the apportionment of Representatives among the States.

Another question which caused much discussion in the Convention was the powers of the executive. The more democratic delegates opposed the veto power of the executive. Among these was James Madison of Virginia. Alexander Hamilton and the monarchical party wanted the President elected for life or during good behavior. The Electoral College, as well as the election of two United States Senators by each State Legislature, was a concession to the States Rights party.

In its practical operation, no part of the Constitution has so widely departed from the ideas of the framers of the Constitution as the Electoral College. They never dreamed that the choice of the Electors would enter into party politics and be decided in each State by popular vote. They did not have sufficient confidence in the people for that. Their idea in creating the Electoral College was to remove the election of President and Vice President entirely away from the people—to have the Electors of each State appointed by the Governor or Legislature of the State, and not chosen by the people directly.

A more serious point was now raised. In the draft of the Constitution now under debate there was a clause forbidding the general government to impose any tax or prohibition upon the migrations or importations authorized by the States, thus implying that there was to be no interference with the slave trade. Luther Martin of Maryland exclaimed: "It is inconsistent with the principles of the Revolution, and dishonorable to the American character, to have such a feature in the Constitution!" John Rutledge of South Carolina replied: "Religion and humanity have nothing to do with this question. Interest alone is the governing principle of nations. The true question at present is whether the Southern States shall or shall not be parties to the Union." Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, also of South Carolina, was calmer and took broader ground, saying: "If the States be left at liberty on this subject, South Carolina may perhaps by degrees do of herself what is wished, as Virginia and Maryland have already done."

The opposition to the claims of the extreme South did not come from the North, but from the more central States, particularly from Virginia. The North, desirous of the passage of laws for the protection of her large shipping interests, was willing to come to an understanding with the South. The result was that the Convention pro-

tracted the slave trade for twenty years, or until 1808; while the restriction upon laws concerning commerce was stricken from the Constitution. This dark transaction was a compromise. It was better to extend the slave trade for twenty years than to leave it without any restriction at all. At the end of these discussions the draft of the clause respecting fugitive slaves was introduced, and was accepted without debate. The word *slaves* was also avoided here, as in all other parts of the Constitution concerning slavery.

There were discussions on the details of the Constitution, but the interest in these debates was usually entirely subordinate to that excited by the questions already alluded to. As these questions involved compromise, it was felt that the Constitution depended upon them. The draft of a letter proposed to be addressed to Congress ran thus: "The Constitution which we now present is the result of a spirit of amity and of that mutual deference and concession which the peculiarity of our political situation rendered indispensable." Said James Wilson to his constituents of Pennsylvania: "I can well recollect the impression which on many occasions was made by the difficulties which surrounded and pressed the Convention. The great undertaking sometimes seemed to be at a stand, and other times its motions seemed to retrograde."

Finally, after almost four months' deliberation through all the heat of summer, the Convention agreed to the Constitution, September 15, 1787. As soon as it was properly engrossed, it was signed by all the delegates present, except Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts and Edmund Randolph and George Mason of Virginia, September 17, 1787. As the last members were signing the instrument, Dr. Franklin pointed to a sun painted on the back of the president's chair, saying: "I have often and often, in the course of the session and the vicissitude of my hopes and fears as to its issue, looked at that sun behind the president, without being able to tell whether it was rising or setting; but now, at length, I have the happiness to know that it is a rising and not a setting sun."

The National Constitution invests the Government of the United States with threefold powers—legislative, executive and judicial—each of which is independent in its own sphere, and each is a coördinate branch of the General Government. The legislative power is to enact laws; the executive power to execute them; and the judicial power to interpret them.

The Constitution vests the legislative power in a Congress of the United States, which consists of two branches, a Senate and a House of Representatives. The House of Representatives, or Lower House, consists of members chosen for two years by the people of the several States; the Representatives to be apportioned according to the population, which is ascertained every ten years. The Senate, or Upper House, consists of two members from each State, chosen for six years by the Legislatures of the States. The States retained the power of domestic legislation; but the Congress is invested with the power to declare war; to raise and support armies; to levy and collect taxes, duties, imports and excises; to coin money; to establish post-offices and post roads; to provide and maintain a navy; to call out the militia for the purpose of suppressing insurrection and repelling invasion; to admit new States into the Union; and to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting, the territory and other public property of the United States. All bills for raising the revenue originate in the House of Representatives, and that branch of the Congress has the sole power of impeachment; but the Senate has the sole power to try all impeachments, and to confirm all treaties and all executive appointments.

The Constitution vests the executive power in a President of the United States, who, with the Vice-President, is chosen for a term of four years by Electors, equal in number for each State to all its Senators and Representatives in the National Congress. No bill passed by the Congress can become

a law without the President's signature, unless repassed by a vote of two-thirds of each branch of that body. The President is also commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States. He must be a native-born citizen; and before he can enter upon the duties of his office he must solemnly swear, or affirm, that he will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of his ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States. The President has the power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, and to appoint ambassadors and other public ministers and consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and other officers of the United States. The duty of the Vice President is to preside over the Senate of the United States, but he is allowed no vote unless the Senate is equally divided, in which case he must give the casting vote; and in case of the death, resignation or removal of the President, the Vice President must perform the duties of President of the United States.

The Constitution vests the judicial power in a Supreme Court of the United States, consisting of a Chief-Justice and several Associate-Justices, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may establish. The judges of both the supreme and inferior courts hold their offices during good behavior. The judicial power of the United States extends to all cases arising under the Constitution and laws of the United States, and treaties made with foreign powers; to all cases of maritime jurisdiction; to all controversies to which the United States is a party; to all controversies between States; between citizens of different States; between a State and citizens of another State; between a State, or its citizens, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

The Constitution defines treason against the United States to consist in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies; and it provides for the removal of the President and all other civil officers of the United States, on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery and other misdemeanors. Provision is also made for the amendment of the Constitution; and for guaranteeing to every State of the Union a republican form of government, and for the protection of each against invasion or domestic violence. The Constitution is the Supreme Law of the Land; and all civil officers of the United States, and of the several States, are bound thereby.

The National Constitution was to go into effect as the Organic Law of the Republic upon its ratification by conventions of the people in nine States. The new instrument met with violent opposition from a large portion of the American people, and two parties were quickly formed upon the question of its adoption or rejection. Those in favor of its adoption were called Federalists, and those opposed to such action were designated Anti-Federalists. Some of the States very reluctantly yielded their assent to the new instrument; and some of the greatest men in America, such as Thomas Jefferson and Patrick Henry of Virginia, were strenuously opposed to its adoption, because it deprived the States and the people of too many of their former rights, and centralized too much power in the National Government. Even some of the delegates of the Constitutional Convention opposed it when they returned to their homes. Luther Martin of Maryland declared: "I would reduce myself to indigence and poverty, if on those terms only I could procure my country to reject those chains which are forged for it." Luther Martin, like Oliver Ellsworth and others, had been absent during the last days of the Convention.

But the articles in *The Federalist* in favor of its adoption, written by Alexander Hamilton and John Jay of New York, and James Madison of Virginia, had a powerful effect upon the public mind. Jeremy Belknap, a Boston clergyman, was a strong champion of the Constitution. Under the signature of "Fabius," John Dickinson of Delaware, formerly of Pennsylvania—whose *Farmer's Letters* had pleaded for liberty twenty years before, but who had in 1776

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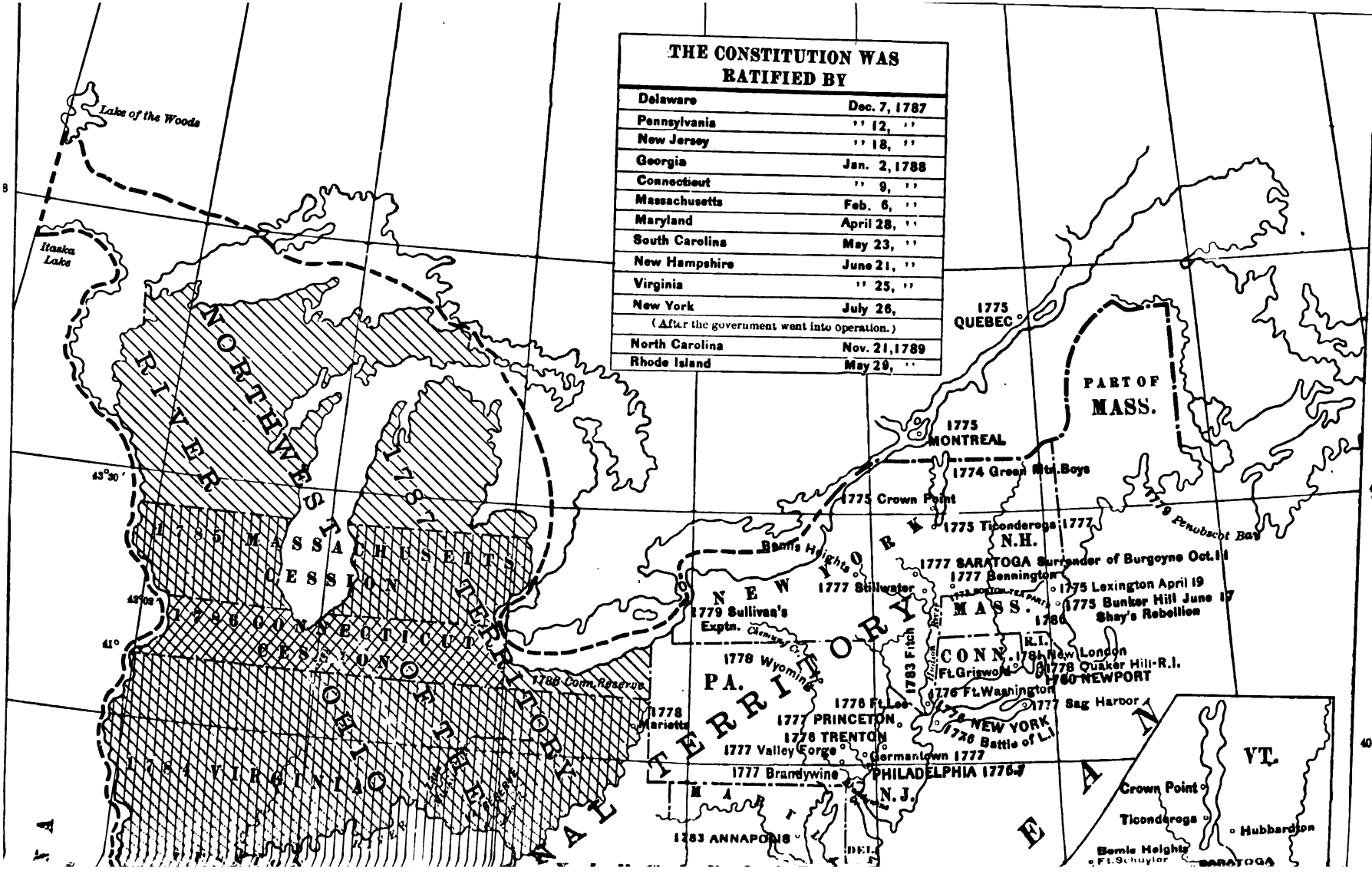
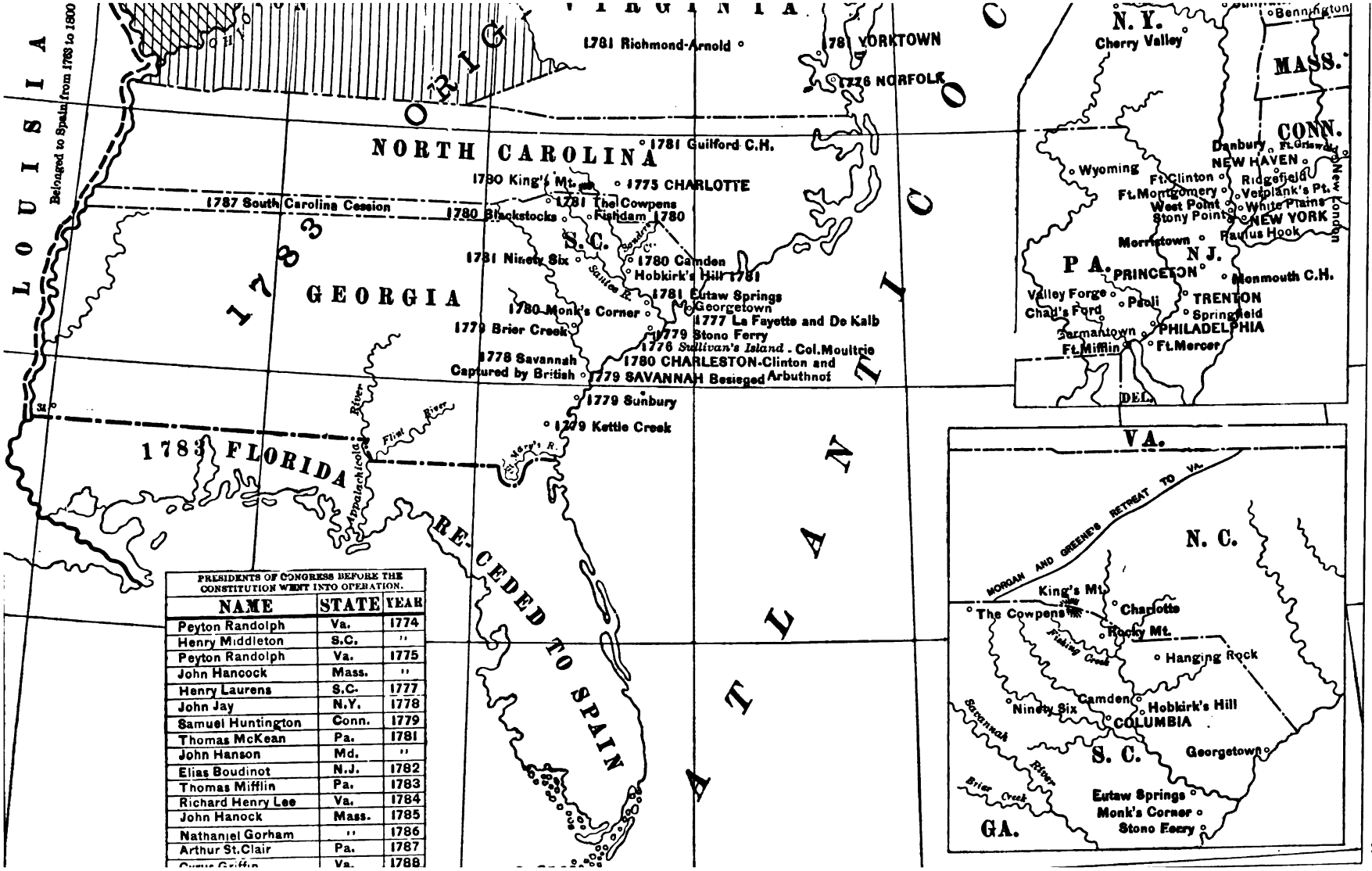

THE CONSTITUTION WAS RATIFIED BY
Delaware Dec. 7, 1787
Pennsylvania " 12, "
New Jersey " 18, "
Georgia Jan. 2, 1788
Connecticut " 9, "
Massachusetts Feb. 6, "
Maryland April 28, "
South Carolina May 23, "
New Hampshire June 21, "
Virginia " 25, "
New York July 26,
(After the government went into operation.)
North Carolina Nov. 21, 1789
Rhode Island May 29, "
Lake of the Woods
Itaska Lake
NORTHWEST TERRITORY
RIVER OHIO
1787
1785 MASSACHUSETTS CESSION
1786 CONNECTICUT CESSION
1784 VIRGINIA
1786 Conn. Reserve
1775 QUEBEC
PART OF MASS.
1775 MONTREAL
1774 Green Mtn. Boys
1775 Crown Point
1775 Ticonderoga 1777
N.H.
1779 Penobscot Bay
1777 SARATOGA Surrender of Burgoyne Oct. 11
1777 Bennington
1775 Lexington April 19
1775 Bunker Hill June 17
Shay's Rebellion
1786
Bemis Heights
1777 Stillwater
NEW YORK
MASS.
1779 Sullivan's Exptn.
Chemung Cr.
1778 Wyoming
PA.
1783 Fitch
Hudson River
CONN.
R.I.
1781 New London
1778 Quaker Hill-R.I.
1780 NEWPORT
Ft. Griswold
1776 Ft. Washington
1777 Sag Harbor
1776 NEW YORK
1776 Battle of L.I.
1776 Ft. Lee
1777 PRINCETON
1776 TRENTON
1777 Valley Forge
Germantown 1777
PHILADELPHIA 1776-7
1777 Brandywine
N.J.
1778 Marietta
1783 ANNAPOLIS
DEL.
VT.
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
Hubbardton
Bemis Heights
Ft. Schuyler
SARATOGA
43°30'
42°02'
41°
40



PRESIDENTS OF CONGRESS BEFORE THE CONSTITUTION WENT INTO OPERATION.

NAME	STATE	YEAR
Peyton Randolph	Va.	1774
Henry Middleton	S.C.	"
Peyton Randolph	Va.	1775
John Hancock	Mass.	"
Henry Laurens	S.C.	1777
John Jay	N.Y.	1778
Samuel Huntington	Conn.	1779
Thomas McKean	Pa.	1781
John Hanson	Md.	"
Elias Boudinot	N.J.	1782
Thomas Mifflin	Pa.	1783
Richard Henry Lee	Va.	1784
John Hanock	Mass.	1785
Nathaniel Gorham	"	1786
Arthur St.Clair	Pa.	1787
Cyrus Griffin	Va.	1788

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opposed the Declaration of Independence as premature—now pleaded for constitutional government. Francis Hopkinson of Philadelphia wrote an allegory called the *New Roof* in support of the Constitution, and William Billings of Boston was the author of a patriotic song called *Columbia* in support of the same instrument.

The National Constitution was ratified by conventions of the people in eleven States in the following order: Delaware, December 7, 1787; Pennsylvania, December 12, 1787; New Jersey, December 18, 1787; Georgia, January 2, 1788; Connecticut, January 9, 1788; Massachusetts, February 6, 1788; Maryland, April 28, 1788; South Carolina, May 23, 1788; New Hampshire, June 21, 1788; Virginia, June 26, 1788; New York, July 26, 1788.

The various State conventions ratified the Constitution by very small majorities. In most of these conventions a series of amendments was framed and passed. North Carolina refused to consent unless her amendments were adopted. The New York convention urged upon the nation another general convention. New York was the scene of more decided demonstrations. The many riots throughout the country began with a collision between two bands of the rival parties at Albany, July 4, 1788, and ended with the destruction of the type of an Anti-Federalist newspaper establishment in New York City, July 27, 1788. The project of another general convention found favor in Pennsylvania; and the Assembly of Virginia took up the matter, but after the convention of that State had accepted the Constitution. Thus the large States, to which the Constitution was supposed to be particularly acceptable, developed the greatest opposition to the new instrument of government. Massachusetts had but a bare majority in favor of the Constitution. The small states, which had so bitterly opposed the Constitution in the Convention, were now its most earnest supporters. The parties in the large States opposing the Constitution were unable to combine with any effect, and the generous impulses and united exertions of its advocates carried it through in triumph. North Carolina and Rhode Island were the only two of the thirteen States that held aloof until after the organization of the new government; North Carolina ratifying the Constitution, November 21, 1789, and Rhode Island, May 29, 1790.

Thus, after much opposition, the Constitution was finally ratified in 1788 by the conventions in eleven States; whereupon it became the Supreme Law of the American Republic. On September 13, 1788, Congress appointed days for the requisite elections and for the organization of the new government; and on the 4th of March, 1789, the old Continental Congress expired, and the new National Government went into full operation. Then the Republic of the United States of America commenced its glorious career.

Thus was completed one of the most extraordinary transactions in history. An infant nation enfeebled, dismembered and dispirited, broken by the losses of a war for existence, by the dissensions of peace, incapacitated for its duties to its own citizens or to foreign powers, suddenly bestirred itself and prepared a national government. It chose its representatives without conflicts or even without emotions. These representatives assembled, at first only to disagree, to threaten and to fail; but the inspiration of a national cause proved potent against the spells of individual selfishness and sectional passion. The representatives of the nation consented to the measures on which depended the common honor and the common safety. The nation itself then broke out in clamors, but there was very little violence. No contentions arose between the States. Each had its own differences, but when each had decided for itself it united with the others in proclaiming the National Constitution.

Said Washington: "I conceive under an energetic general government such regulations might be made and such measures taken as would render this country the asylum of pacific and industrious characters from all

parts of Europe''—as he said in another place, "a kind of asylum for mankind." Thus he and other generous spirits looked beyond the limits of their country, and the work achieved was not only for the nation that achieved it. It was not only for America that her sons labored, but for all mankind.

DERIVATION OF THORFIN, THE DANE, EARL OF THE ORKNEY ISLES, FOUNDER OF THE WASHINGTON FAMILY IN ENGLAND, A. D. 1030–'35, FROM ODIN, FIRST KING OF SCANDINAVIA, B. C. 70.

ODIN, the son of Fridulf, supreme ruler of the Scythians, in Asaland, or Asaheim, Turkestan, between the Euxine and Caspian Seas, in Asia. He reigned at Asgard, whence he removed in the year B. C. 70, and became the first King of Scandinavia. He died in the year B. C. 50, and was succeeded by his sons, who reigned in different parts of Scandinavia. His son

SKIOLD became King of Zealand and Jutland, B. C. 50, and died B. C. 40. His son was:

FRIDLEIF, who became the first King of Denmark, B. C. 40. He died B. C. 23. His son was:

FRODE FREDIGOD, who became King of Denmark, B. C. 23. He died A. D. 35. His son was:

FRODE II., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 59. He died A. D. 87. His son was:

VERMUND THE SAGE, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 87, and died A. D. 140. His son was:

OLAF THE MILD, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 140. Obit A. D. 190. His

Daughter became Queen of Denmark—and DAN MYKILLATI, her husband, became King of Denmark, A. D. 190. He died A. D. 270. His son was:

FRODE III., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 270. He died A. D. 310. His son was:

HALFDAN, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 310. Obit A. D. 324. His son was:

FRIDLEIF III., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 324. He died A. D. 348. His son was:

FRODE IV., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 348. He died A. D. 407. His son was:

HALFDAN II., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 456. Obit A. D. 457. His son was:

ROE, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 460. He died A. D. 494. His son was:

FRODE VI., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 494. He died A. D. 510. His son was:

FRODE VII., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 522. He died A. D. 548. His son was:

HALFDAN III., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 548. He died A. D. 580. His son was:

IVAR VIDFADME, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 588. Obit A. D. 647. His daughter,

AUDA DIUPHRAUDZA, Queen of Holmgard, married RERICK, King of Holmgard. Her son was:

HARALD HILDETAND, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 647. Obit A. D. 735. His son was:

THROUD, King of Frondheim, who married, A. D. 750, a daughter of SIGURD HRING. His son was:

EISTEN, King of Frondheim, born about A. D. 755. Married A. D. 780. His son was:

HALFDAN, King of Frondheim, born about A. D. 785. Married A. D. 810. His son was:

EISTEN GLUMRU, King of Thrandia, born about A. D. 815, became King of Thrandia, A. D. 840. His

Daughter married, A. D. 850, IVAR, Earl of Upland. Their son was:

EISTEN GLUMRU. He was living A. D. 870. His son was:

ROGVALD, who was Earl of Moere, A. D. 885. His son was:

EINAR, Earl of the Orkney Isles. His son was:

TORFIDUR, who was Earl of the Orkney Isles, A. D. 942. His son was:

LODVER, who was Earl of the Orkney Isles. His son was:

SIGURD, who was Earl of the Orkney Isles. His son was:

THORFIN THE DANE, Earl of the Orkney Isles, also called TORKILL, of Richmondshire, England, Baron and Lord of Tanfield, Founder of the Washington Family in England.

DERIVATION OF GEORGE WASHINGTON, FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM THORFIN THE DANE.

THORFIN THE DANE, Earl of the Orkney Isles, also called Torkill, of Richmondshire, England, Baron and Lord of Tanfield, Founder of the Washington Family in England, was born about A. D. 1010, and settled in Yorkshire, England, about 1030–35. Obit about A. D. 1080. His son was:

BARDOLF FIL THORFIN, born about A. D. 1035. Obit about A. D. 1120. His son was:

AKARIS FIL BARDOLF, born about A. D. 1080. Obit A. D. 1161. His son was:

BONDO FIL AKARIS, born about A. D. 1122. Obit about A. D. 1200. His son was:

WALTER FIL BONDO DE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1160. Obit about A. D. 1245. His son was:

ROBERT DE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1195. Obit about A. D. 1260. His son was:

ROBERT DE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1230. Obit about A. D. 1300. His son was:

ROBERT WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1265. Obit about A. D. 1325. His son was:

JOHN WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1305. He died before A. D. 1386. His son was:

JOHN WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1330. He died about A. D. 1405. His son was:

JOHN WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1365. He died about A. D. 1425. His son was:

ROBERT WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1400. He died about A. D. 1479. His son was:

JOHN WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1430. He died May 4, A. D. 1501. His son was:

ROBERT WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1467. He died September 20, A. D. 1517. His son was:

THOMAS WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1493. He died about A. D. 1560. His son was:

LAURENCE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1515. He was living A. D. 1543. He was Mayor of Northampton. His son was:

LAURENCE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1540. He was living A. D. 1588. His son was:

LAURENCE WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1569. He was living A. D. 1629. His son was:

LEONARD WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1595. He died A. D. 1657. His son was:

COLONEL JOHN WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1627. He came to Virginia in 1659. He died in January, A. D. 1677. His son was:

LAURENCE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1661. He died A. D. 1697. His son was:

AUGUSTINE WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1694. He died April 12, A. D. 1743. His son was:

GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON, first President of the United States, born February 22, A. D. 1732, and died December 14, A. D. 1799.

SECTION X.—ENGLAND, IRELAND AND BRITISH INDIA.

SAYS John Richard Green, the English historian: "The history of Ireland, from its conquest by William the Third up to this time, is one which no Englishman can recall without shame. Since the surrender of Limerick every Catholic Irishman, and there were five Catholics to every Protestant, had been treated as a stranger and a foreigner in his own country."

The Catholic or native Irish were excluded from the Irish House of Lords and House of Commons, from the right to vote for members of this Parliament, from the magistracy, from all corporate offices in towns, from all ranks in the army, from the bench, from the bar, from the whole administration of government or justice in Ireland.

Says Green: "Few Catholic landowners had been left by the sweeping confiscations which had followed the successive revolts of the island; and oppressive laws forced even these few, with scant exceptions, to profess Protestantism. Necessity, indeed, had brought about a practical toleration of their religion and their worship; but in all social and political matters the native Catholics, in other words the immense majority of the people of Ireland, were simply hewers of wood and drawers of water to their Protestant masters, who still looked on themselves as mere settlers, who boasted of their Scotch or English extraction, and who regarded the name of 'Irishman' as an insult."

Thus the Catholic population of Ireland was disfranchised and oppressed by the few English and Scotch colonists who had settled in the island during the reigns of the Stuarts. But one-half of this small Protestant population possessed but little more political power than the Catholics; as the Presbyterians, who constituted the great majority of the English and Scotch settlers of Ulster, were excluded by law from all civil, military and municipal offices. Thus the administration and justice in Ireland were kept rigidly in the hands of members of the State Church, which embraced about a twelfth of the population of the island; while the government of the Emerald Isle

was virtually monopolized by a few great Protestant landowners.

By this time the rotten boroughs of Ireland, which had originally been created to render the Irish Parliament dependent on the English crown, had come under the influence of the neighboring landlords, who thus became masters of the Irish House of Commons, while they personally constituted the Irish House of Lords. This system had attained such proportions that at the time of the Parliamentary Union of Ireland with Great Britain in 1801 more than sixty seats in the Irish House of Commons were in the hands of three powerful families—those of Lord Downshire, the Ponsonbys and the Beresfords. One-half of the Irish House of Commons was actually chosen by a small body of nobles, who were styled "Parliamentary undertakers," and undertook to "manage" the Irish Parliament on their own terms. These men looked upon Irish politics as a means of public plunder. They were enriched with pensions, preferments, and bribes in hard cash, as a reward for their services. They were the counselors of every Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and practically governed the country. Says Green: "The result was what might have been expected; and for more than a century Ireland was the worst governed country in Europe."

The government of Ireland would have been even worse than it was had it not been for the subordination of the Irish Parliament to the British Privy Council. The Irish Parliament was without the power to originate legislative or financial measures, and was only empowered to approve or reject the acts submitted to it by the Privy Council of Great Britain. The British Parliament also claimed the right to bind Ireland, as well as England and Scotland, by its enactments; and one of its statutes transferred the appellate jurisdiction of the Irish peerage to the British House of Lords. Though these restrictions were galling to the plundering aristocracy of Ireland, they were a wholesome check on its tyranny.

In the language of Green: "But as if to compensate for the benefits of this protection, England did her best to annihilate Irish commerce and to ruin Irish agriculture." The jealousy of English landowners caused the enactment of statute after statute forbidding the export of cattle or sheep from Ireland to England. The export of wool from Ireland was also forbidden lest it might curtail the profits of English wool-growers. Says Green: "Poverty was thus added to the curse of misgovernment, and poverty deepened with the rapid growth of the native population, till famine turned the country into a hell."

But the bitter lesson of the last English conquest of Ireland—that by William III.—long tended to check all designs of revolt among the native Catholic Irish, and the murders and riots which occurred at various times in consequence of the misery and discontent of the Irish population were sternly repressed by the English Protestant ruling class.

When Ireland threatened revolt against England at last, the threat proceeded from the tyrannical ruling class of Ireland itself. At the accession of George III. the British government made some efforts to control the tyranny of the selfish oligarchy of Ireland; whereupon the Irish Parliament refused to vote money bills, and demanded the removal of the checks imposed upon its independence. In 1768 the situation of Ireland gave considerable uneasiness to the Ministry of the Duke of Grafton; as the Irish Parliament demanded the repeal of Poyning's Law, passed by the English Parliament during the reign of Henry VII. and extended by several subsequent statutes, and which had made the Parliament of Ireland so dependent on the British government that it had become a mere nullity.

The strong party which had been formed in Ireland to achieve the legislative independence of that country gained a part of its object by the passage of the *Octennial Act*, which limited the duration of Irish Parliaments to eight years. Prior to that the Irish Parliament had been dissolved only on the death of the sovereign. In

1769 the Irish Parliament manifested such a determination to cast off the English yoke that the British Ministry was obliged to elude its demands by a prorogation.

During the War of the American Revolution—when the whole civilized world was united directly or indirectly against England—Ireland arose and demanded the independence of her Parliament; thus adding a new political danger to England's other perils in this momentous crisis of her history. The threat of a French invasion of Great Britain and Ireland in 1779, and the want of any regular military force to oppose such invasion, left Lord North's Ministry under the necessity of calling upon Ireland to provide for its own defense; and in that year forty thousand Protestant volunteers, commanded by Protestant officers, appeared in arms, and were turned to account by the Protestant aristocracy which had so long oppressed and misruled Ireland.

The fervid eloquence of two Irish Parliamentary leaders—Henry Grattan and Henry Flood—threatened Great Britain with another armed revolt in the midst of her struggle with her rebellious North American colonies and their European allies; and the Irish volunteers, who soon numbered a hundred thousand, bid for the sympathy of the native Catholic Irish by claiming for them a relaxation of the penal laws against the exercise of their religion and of some of their most oppressive disabilities.

Lord North's Ministry, with the blindness and obstinacy which characterized all its measures, stubbornly refused to concede the demand for the legislative independence of Ireland; but the brief Whig Ministry of the Marquis of Rockingham in 1782—which took steps to end the War of American Independence—conceded the independence of the Irish Parliament by inducing the British Parliament to abandon the judicial and legislative supremacy which it had hitherto asserted over Ireland. For the next eighteen years, A. 1782–1800, Ireland was entirely independent of the British Parliament, and was simply united with Great Britain under one sovereign. Thus the two island kingdoms were only held together by the fact that the sovereign of one was also the sovereign of the other, being independent of each other in everything else. This concession satisfied Ireland for the time.

ROBERT CLIVE AND WARREN HASTINGS.

The affairs of British India, as well as those of America and Ireland, occupied the attention of Great Britain during the first part of the reign of George III., in the last half of the eighteenth century. As we have seen, the British Empire in India was founded by Colonel Robert Clive on the ruins of the Great Mogul Empire founded by Baber several centuries before, and on the total subversion of the French power in India. Colonel Clive was rewarded for his distinguished services by being raised to the peerage of England with the title of Lord Clive, Baron of Plassey. Under his government, the English East-India Company obtained the sovereignty of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa, on condition of paying twelve lacs of rupees annually to the nominal Mogul Emperor at Delhi.

The work of organization was soon to follow that of conquest, as the tyranny and corruption of the merchant-clerks who had suddenly become rulers were fast ruining the province of Bengal; and though Clive had reaped more profit than any other by the spoils of his victory he soon perceived that avarice must yield to the responsibilities of power. As soon as the East India Company had acquired the sovereignty of the rich and opulent provinces of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa, a conflict of interest arose between the Company's directors in England and its officers in India. The directors desired to increase their commercial dividends by the revenues of their territories in India, while the officers in India were as determined to apply the surplus income to their own purposes. The want of control over the Company's subordinate authorities in India produced the most lamentable consequences. The Company's officers in India established monopolies in all the chief branches of the domestic trade of that

country, rendered property insecure by arbitrarily changing the tenure of land, and perverted the administration of justice to protect their avarice.

Clive's administration, after his return to India in 1765, lasted two years, and constituted the most glorious years of his life. In spite of opposition from every clerk of the Company, and in spite of mutiny among the Company's troops, Clive suppressed the private trading of the Company's servants in India, and forbade them to accept any presents from the natives. Clive set an example of disinterestedness by relinquishing to public uses a large legacy which had been bequeathed to him by a prince whom he had raised to the throne of Bengal; and he returned to England poorer than he went, only to face the storm that his proceedings had aroused among those in England who were interested in abuses in India.

The injustice of the East India Company's servants toward the native princes aroused a formidable foe to the English. In 1767 Hyder Ali, a military adventurer, who by the force of his own abilities had become Sultan of Mysore, began a war against the Company, imperiling the existence of its territories, and keeping its settlements in a state of constant alarm for several years.

Clive's unsparing denunciations of the misgovernment of Bengal finally aroused even Lord North to interfere; and, when the East India Company's financial distress obliged it to seek aid from the government, the government's grant of assistance was coupled with measures of administrative reform. The *Regulation Act*, passed by the British Parliament in 1773, placed all the possessions of the East India Company under a *Governor-General* and a *Supreme Court of Judicature*, at Calcutta; thus concentrating the power of the three presidencies of Bengal, Madras and Bombay under one government. The Regulation Act prohibited judges and members of the Council of Bengal under the Governor-General at Calcutta from trading, forbade the acceptance of any gifts from native Hindoos, and ordered that every act of the directors of the Company should be submitted to the British government to be approved or disallowed.

The new interest aroused in England concerning India was seen in an investigation of the East India Company's administration of affairs by a committee of the House of Commons. Clive's own early acts were examined by this committee with unsparing rigor. His bitter complaint that he had been arraigned like a sheep-stealer did not prevent the passage of resolutions by the House of Commons censuring the corruption and treachery of the early days of the Company's dominion in India. But the justice of the House of Commons ended there. When Clive's accusers proceeded from the censure of the Company's misrule to the censure of Clive himself the House of Commons, in memory of his great exploits, unanimously voted "that Robert Lord Clive did at the same time render great and meritorious services to his country." But although Clive was acquitted of the charge of misrule and oppression, this searching Parliamentary investigation of his acts drove him to despair and suicide, A. D. 1774.

Upon the passage of the Regulation Act of 1773 Warren Hastings became the first Governor-General of British India. He belonged to a noble family that had long fallen into decay, and in his boyhood his poverty had obliged him to accept a clerkship in the service of the East India Company. Clive's quick eye discerned the merits of Hastings, whom he brought into political life after the battle of Plassey; and the administrative ability which Hastings displayed during the disturbed period which followed led to his elevation from one post to another until he became Governor of Bengal. No one could have been more competent to discharge the duties of the new office of Governor-General which the British government had created without an idea of its real greatness. He was endowed with rare powers of organization and control.

The first measure of Warren Hastings as Governor-General of British India was to establish the direct rule of the East India Company over Bengal by abolishing the

government of its native princes, which, though having become merely nominal, frustrated all projects for effective administration. The Nabob of Bengal became a pensionary of the East India Company, whose new province of Bengal was roughly but efficiently organized. Hastings formed an able body of public servants out of the clerks and traders of the Company. He devised a system of law and finance far superior to any that India had ever before known or seen, hasty and imperfect as it necessarily was. He stamped out corruption with as firm a hand as Clive had done, but he acquired the love of the new "civilians," while he also won the affection of the Hindoos. Although he raised the revenue of Bengal, and was able to send annually a surplus of half a million pounds to the Company in England, he did so without imposing a fresh burden on the natives or losing their good-will.

The administration of Warren Hastings was guided by an intimate knowledge of and sympathy with the people of India. At a time when the Hindoo language was regarded simply as a medium of trade and business, he was familiar with that language in its various dialects, and was conversant with the native customs and with the native feeling. It is therefore not surprising that he was more popular with the Bengalees than any other British ruler in India, and that Hindoo mothers still hush their infants with the name of Warren Hastings.

The conscious and deliberate design of subjecting India to the British crown commenced with Warren Hastings. Though English influence was great in the South of India, Bengal was then alone directly in the possession of the English. The policy of Warren Hastings was directed toward making England mistress of all Hindoostan, from the island of Ceylon on the south to the Himalayas on the north, and from the frontier of Afghanistan on the west to the borders of Burmah on the east. For this purpose Warren Hastings bound the native princes of Oude and Berar by treaties and subsidies, crushed without scruple every state which appeared to afford a nucleus for resistance, like that of the Rohillas, and watched with ceaseless jealousy the growth of powers as remote as that of the Sikhs.

Warren Hastings was surprised in the midst of his vast schemes by the War of American Independence, which hurried him into immediate action most unexpectedly. The jealousy of France sought a counterpoise to British power in the Mahrattas, those Hindoo freebooters whose tribes had for a century raided India from the Western Ghauts and founded sovereignties in Guzerat, Malwa and Tanjore. All the Mahratta tribes were bound by a slight tie of subjection to the Mahratta chief who reigned at Poonah, and through this chieftain the French envoys were able to unite the whole Mahratta confederacy against the English power in India.

Warren Hastings met the danger which threatened him with characteristic promptness of resolution. He was surrounded with great difficulties. The opposition of his Council had rendered him powerless for two years; and when he was released from that obstacle the East India Company pressed him constantly for money, and the crown repeatedly threatened to recall him. His own general, Sir Eyre Coote, was miserly and capricious, and had to be humored like a child. Every mail which he received brought censures and complaints; but he never lost his calm self-command, and his action showed no trace of embarrassment. He prosecuted the war with the Mahrattas with the most unrelenting tenacity of purpose, in spite of the blunders of his subordinates and the inefficiency of the soldiers at his command.

The English arms encountered repeated failures; and no sooner had the struggle with the Mahrattas promised a favorable issue than a more powerful foe to English dominion in India appeared in Hyder Ali, who, in alliance with the French and the Dutch, began a second war with the East India Company in 1780, as already noticed in the section on the War of the American

Revolution. Warren Hastings heard of Hyder Ali's formidable invasion of the Carnatic when he was about to triumph over the Mahrattas; but he instantly made peace with the Mahrattas and hurried all his forces to Madras, which was in imminent danger of capture. Sir Eyre Coote's victory over Hyder Ali at Porto Novo in 1781 hurled that native prince back into the fastnesses of Mysore, and India was the only quarter in which the English lost nothing during the War of the American Revolution.

Though the schemes of conquest planned by Warren Hastings were frustrated for the time, the annexation of Benares, the extension of the East India Company's dominions along the Ganges, the reduction of Oude to virtual dependence, the appearance of British armies in Central Hindoostan, and Hyder Ali's defeat, laid the foundation for the extension of the British dominion over the whole of Hindoostan—a result which the genius of Hastings was bold and sagacious enough to foresee.

THE SECOND WILLIAM PITT.

With the brief Ministry of the Marquis of Rockingham in 1782 a new power arose in the House of Commons—the younger William Pitt, the second son of the elder William Pitt, the Great Commoner and afterward the illustrious Earl of Chatham. The younger Pitt, though but twenty-two years of age, soon took rank as one of the Whigs—a distinction which he shared with Charles James Fox. Pitt had just left college with the learning of a ripe scholar. After his first speech in the House of Commons a member of Parliament said to Charles James Fox: "He will be one of the first men in Parliament." Fox replied: "He is so already." Edmund Burke then said of the younger Pitt, comparing him with his renowned father: "He is not a chip of the old block. He is the old block itself." This "boy," as his political rivals sneeringly called him, was soon to crush every political opponent and to make himself master of the destinies of England. His figure was tall and spare, his demeanor was grave, his countenance was never lighted by a smile, and his address was cold and repulsive.

The return of the Whig party to power soon developed a new breach between the bulk of the party headed by Charles James Fox and the small faction under the leadership of the Earl of Shelburne and the younger William Pitt. Pitt introduced a bill for the reform of the House of Commons on the plan proposed by his illustrious father in 1770. But the bulk of the Whigs would not consent to sacrifice their property and influence which such a reform would involve, and Pitt's bill was therefore rejected. In its stead the Ministry sought to weaken the means of corrupt influence which the king had used so unscrupulously by disqualifying persons holding government contracts from occupying seats in Parliament, by depriving revenue officers of the elective franchise, and also by a bill introduced by Edmund Burke to reduce the civil establishment, the pension list and the secret-service fund. These measures somewhat diminished the influence of the crown over Parliament, and put an end to the direct bribery of members of Parliament; but they did not render the House of Commons really representative of or responsible to the people of England.

The jealousy which the bulk of the Whigs entertained for the more progressive faction under the Earl of Shelburne was shown when, upon the death of the Marquis of Rockingham, in July, 1782, and the accession of the Earl of Shelburne to the head of the Ministry, Mr. Fox and his immediate supporters in the Ministry resigned, while the youthful Pitt became Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The Ministry of the Earl of Shelburne only lasted long enough to conclude the Treaties of Paris and Versailles, which ended the War of American Independence. Early in 1783, to the utter astonishment of all England, Mr. Fox and the Whig faction which he headed formed a coalition with the Tory faction under Lord North, whom he had so long and so bitterly opposed. This coalition was the most unscrupulous in

British history. The united Parliamentary influence of Mr. Fox and Lord North was irresistible. They overthrew the Ministry of the Earl of Shelburne, and forced themselves into the royal councils in spite of the king's secret dislike and the nation's open disgust.

Secure in their Parliamentary majority, and regardless of the power of public opinion, the Coalition Ministry undertook a task greater than any that had yet taxed the genius of English statesmen. In spite of the fortunate termination of the wars with the Mahrattas and with Hyder Ali, and the extension of the East India Company's dominion in Bengal by the capture of Negapatam from the Dutch during the War of the American Revolution, the aspect of affairs in India was gloomy and threatening. All the exactions of the Company were not sufficient to enable it to fulfill its engagements with the British government, and its affairs were regarded as fast approaching bankruptcy. It had likewise been found very inconvenient to have a powerful merchant company existing as a state within the state, and all parties in England were agreed that the East India Company ought to be placed more directly under the control of the British government.

Mr. Fox introduced a bill in the House of Commons providing for the transfer of the civil government of British India from the directors of the East India Company to a board of seven commissioners, to be nominated by Parliament and confirmed by the crown, to remain in office five years, but subject to removal on address from either House of Parliament. This bill, on which Mr. Fox had staked the existence of the Coalition Ministry, immediately encountered a storm of opposition. The scheme was an injudicious one; as the new commissioners would have been destitute of the political knowledge of India possessed by the East India Company, while such a board would manifestly be an independent authority within the state, and the want of an immediate link between the board and the Ministry of the crown would have prevented Parliament from exercising any real control over its acts.

Great was the popular outcry against Mr. Fox's India bill. The mercantile class were galled by the blow aimed at the greatest merchant company in the kingdom. Corporations trembled at the cancellation of a charter. King George III. looked upon the measure as a design to transfer the patronage of India to the Whig party, and thus make the power of a party rival the power of the king. The opposition of the English people at large to the bill was on account of the character of the Ministry which proposed it. The Whigs had rejected the younger Pitt's proposal of Parliamentary reform a second time, while Mr. Fox's coalition with Lord North showed that in an unreformed Parliament the force of public opinion was powerless to check the most disgraceful efforts of political faction. The power of the crown had been diminished by the reforms introduced by the Marquis of Rockingham to the profit of the boroughmongers who usurped the people's representation, but not to the advantage of the English people themselves.

To give the government and patronage of India to the existing House of Commons was to give a new and immense power to a body which misused in the grossest manner the power which it already possessed. This popular feeling encouraged the king to exert his personal influence to defeat the measure; and, when the bill had passed the House of Commons, His Majesty, through Earl Temple, intimated his opposition to the measure; whereupon the House of Lords rejected it by a considerable majority. As the Coalition Ministry appeared unwilling to resign it was summarily dismissed by the king, in December, 1783; and a new ministry was formed under the younger William Pitt, who was then but twenty-five years of age.

Pitt's position of First Lord of the Treasury would have been insecure had the English people sustained their nominal representatives. The House of Commons repeatedly rejected his measures by large majorities; but these majorities dwindled as

the addresses which poured in from every part of the kingdom, from the Tory University of Oxford as well as from the Whig Corporation of London, showed that public opinion sustained the young Prime Minister and not the House of Commons. This popular approval justified Pitt in the firmness with which he delayed the dissolution of Parliament for five months, in the face of addresses for his dismissal from office, and gained time for that maturity of public opinion on which he counted for success. The Parliamentary elections of 1784 ended the struggle. Public sentiment had become strong enough for the time to break through the corrupt influences which generally rendered Parliamentary representation a farce. Every great constituency elected supporters of Pitt, and a hundred and sixty members of the majority which had defeated him in the House of Commons were defeated, while but a remnant of the Whig party was saved by its control of nomination boroughs.

British India is indebted to Pitt's triumph for a form of government which remains unchanged to the present time. The India bill which he introduced in 1784 preserved apparently the political and commercial powers of the directors of the East India Company, while it established a Board of Control formed from members of the Privy Council for the approval or rejection of the acts of the directors. But the powers of the directors were virtually absorbed by a secret committee of three elected members of the board of directors, to whom all the more important administrative functions had been reserved by the bill, while the powers of the Board of Control were practically exercised by its president. As this president was virtually a new Secretary of State for the Indian Department, and became an important member of each Ministry, responsible to Parliament for his actions like his fellow-members, the administration of India was thus made a part of the general system of the British government; while the secret committee supplied the practical experience of Indian affairs in which the Prime Minister might be lacking.

But a far more important change than any which could be effected by Parliamentary legislation occurred at that time in England's attitude toward its great Asiatic dependency. The discussions of the rival India bills of Mr. Fox and Mr. Pitt created a sense of responsibility for the good government of India. There was a general determination that the security against misrule which the poorest Englishman enjoyed should also be enjoyed by the poorest Hindoo, and this determination manifested itself in the memorable impeachment and trial of Warren Hastings.

At the close of the war with Hyder Ali and his son Tippoo Saib, Warren Hastings returned to England from India, hoping to receive rewards as great as those which had been conferred on Robert Clive. Hastings had saved all that Clive had won. He had laid the foundation of a vast British dominion in the East. He had displayed rare powers of administration, and the foresight, courage and moderation of an able ruler.

But the wisdom and glory of the administration of Warren Hastings could not conceal its oppression and extortion. To satisfy the incessant demands of the East India Company, to support his wars, to maintain his diplomacy, he had needed money; and he took it wherever he could find it. For an immense sum he had sold the services of British troops to crush the free tribes of the Rohillas. By oppression he had extorted half a million pounds from the Rajah of Benares. By torture and starvation he had wrung over a million pounds from the Princesses of Oude.

Warren Hastings had also maintained his power by the most unscrupulous measures. At the beginning of his career, when he was considered helpless before his enemies in the Council, he had displayed his power by using the forms of English law in putting Nuncomar, a native who supported the party opposed to him, to death as a forger. When Sir Elijah Impey, the first Chief Justice of Bengal, opposed his plans, he bribed him into acquiescence by creating a fictitious and lucrative office for him.

Although Warren Hastings was not guilty of corruption, and although he had not sought power from selfish motives, but from a firm conviction that his hold of power was essential to the preservation of India to the British crown, even Pitt shrank from justifying his acts when Edmund Burke moved the impeachment of Hastings in the House of Commons in 1786.

In this speech of passionate eloquence Burke said: "I impeach Warren Hastings, Esquire, of high crimes and misdemeanors. I impeach him in the name of the Commons of Great Britain, in Parliament assembled, whose Parliamentary trust he has betrayed. I impeach him in the name of all the Commons of Great Britain, whose national character he has dishonored. I impeach him in the name of the people of India, whose laws, rights and liberties he has subverted; whose properties he has destroyed; whose country he has laid waste and desolate. I impeach him in the name and by the virtue of those eternal laws of justice which he has violated. I impeach him in the name of human nature itself, which he has cruelly outraged, injured and oppressed, in both sexes, in every age, rank, situation and condition of life."

The great trial of Warren Hastings at the bar of the House of Lords lingered eight years, during which the brilliant galaxy of great British statesmen—Burke, Fox and Sheridan—distinguished themselves by their oratory in their speeches against the accused; and the proceedings ended in the acquittal of Mr. Hastings by the House of Lords in 1794, at least of intentional wrong, as the East India Company by its ceaseless demands for large remittances were more responsible than the Governor-General; but the protracted prosecution ruined the accused in health and fortune.

Though Warren Hastings was acquitted, the object of his impeachment had really been gained, as the crimes which sullied his glory have never been practiced by the worst of his successors. Ever since that day the peasant of Bengal or Mysore has enjoyed the same rights of justice and good government as are claimed by Englishmen. In 1785 Warren Hastings had been succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Sir John MacPherson, who was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis in 1786.

Pitt had refused to shelter Warren Hastings, in spite of pressure from King George III. himself. When the new Parliament assembled in 1784, Pitt, though but twenty-five years of age, seemed master of England as no Prime Minister had been before him. Even the king yielded to his sway, partly through gratitude for the triumph which the youthful Minister had won for His Majesty over the Whigs, and partly from a consciousness of the coming madness which was soon to afflict him.

The Whig party was broken, unpopular and without a policy. The Tories adhered to the Prime Minister who had "saved the king." Pitt was incorruptible, too proud to accept a bribe, and honestly sought his country's welfare. He was a man of gigantic ability, and by far the greatest statesman of England in his time. He was his father's inferior as an orator, but his superior in many other qualities, particularly in his power of self-command, his immense capacity for business and his untiring industry.

The trading classes saw in the younger William Pitt all that they had loved in his renowned father—his nobleness of temper, his consciousness of power, his patriotism, his sympathy with the public. His simplicity and good taste freed him from his father's ostentation and extravagance. The younger Pitt resembled Sir Robert Walpole in his love of peace, his great industry, his dispatch of public business, his skill in debate, his knowledge of finance; but, as he cared not for personal gain, he was free from the corruption which sullied Walpole's long administration.

Pitt's lofty self-esteem freed him from any jealousy of his subordinates. He was generous in his appreciation of youthful merits; and the "boys" whom he called about him, such as George Canning and Arthur Wellesley, both of whom afterward played so prominent a part in the destinies of Great

Britain, rewarded his generosity by a devotion which did not cease with death.

The younger Pitt had no sympathy whatever with Walpole's cynical inaction. His policy from the very beginning was one of active reform; and he faced all the financial, constitutional and religious problems from which Walpole had shrunk. More than all, Pitt was free from Walpole's scorn of his fellow-men. The noblest feature in Pitt's mind was its wide humanity. His love for England was no less deep and personal than his father's love, but he was free from the sympathy with English passion and English prejudice which had been both his father's weakness and strength. When Charles James Fox taunted him with forgetting his father's jealousy of France, and his faith that France was the natural enemy of England, Pitt replied nobly that "to suppose any nation can be unalterably the enemy of another is weak and childish."

The temper of the age and the wider sympathy of man with his fellow, which particularly characterized the last half of the eighteenth century as a turning-point in the history of mankind, was everywhere bringing to the front a new class of European statesmen, such as the French Prime Minister Turgot and the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany, who were distinguished by their love of the human race and by a belief that as the happiness of each individual can only be secured by the general happiness of the community of which he forms a part, so the welfare of each nation can only be secured by the general welfare of the world. Pitt belonged to this class of contemporary European statesmen, but he was superior to the rest of them in the consummate knowledge and the practical force which he brought to the realization of his aims.

Pitt exerted his great genius to advance the material wealth and industry of England. His measures were eminently successful, and under his wise administration England commenced that wonderful advance of prosperity which has made her the leading manufacturing and commercial nation of the world—"the workshop of the world."

England made wonderful progress during this period. Her population more than doubled during the eighteenth century, and her advance in wealth was even greater than her growth in population. The War of American Independence had added a hundred million pounds to the national debt, but this burden was scarcely felt. England's commerce with America was greater since the war than it had been when the United States were English colonies.

During the first half of the eighteenth century the cotton trade, the chief seat of which was Manchester, had only risen from the value of twenty thousand pounds to that of forty thousand pounds; and the hand-loom was of the same primitive shape as the hand-looms of India at the present day. But three successive inventions in ten years—that of the spinning-jenny by the weaver James Hargreaves in 1764, that of the spinning-frame by the barber Richard Arkwright in 1768, and that of the mule by the weaver Crompton in 1776—made Lancashire a hive of industry.

At the time of the accession of George III. to the British throne, in 1760, the entire linen trade of Scotland was less in value than the cloth trade of Yorkshire; but before the end of his reign Glasgow was rapidly becoming one of the commercial emporiums of the world. The potteries which Josiah Wedgwood established in 1763, and in which he profited by the genius of Flaxman, soon surpassed those of Holland or France. Before the lapse of twenty years, more than twenty thousand potters were employed in Staffordshire alone.

The means of communication had hitherto been of the rudest kind. The roads were generally so wretched that all cheap or rapid transit was impossible, and the cotton bales of Manchester were conveyed to Liverpool or Bristol on pack-horses. But the rapid development of manufactures led to a corresponding improvement in the means of communication throughout England. Canals were constructed between the prominent points of the kingdom, and England was covered with a network of splendid highways.

In 1761 the engineering skill of James Brindley connected Manchester with Liverpool by a canal which crossed the Irwell on a lofty aqueduct, and it was the success of this experiment which soon led to the universal introduction of transportation by water. Canals joined the Trent with the Mersey, the Thames with the Trent, and the Forth with the Clyde.

The cheapness of the new method of transit, no less than the great progress in engineering science, caused a great development of English collieries; and coal became one of the chief articles exported from England. The value of coal as a means of producing mechanical force was disclosed in 1765 in the discovery by which the Scotchman James Watt transformed the steam engine into the most wonderful instrument which human industry has ever had at its command.

The same energy and enterprise was displayed in the agricultural progress of the country. During the eighteenty century a fourth part of England was reclaimed from waste and brought under cultivation. At the time of the Revolution of 1688 more than half of the kingdom consisted of moorland and forest and fen, while the greater part of England north of the Humber was covered with vast commons and wastes; but the many inclosure bills which commenced with the reign of George II., and which particularly marked that of George III., changed the entire face of the country. Under the operation of these bills, ten thousand square miles of untilled land have been added to the area of land under tillage; while in the cultivated land itself the production had been more than doubled by the growth of agriculture which commenced with the travels and treatises of Arthur Young, the introduction of the system of large farms by Mr. Coke of Norfolk, and the development of scientific tillage in the valleys of Lothian.

Among the books which exerted the greatest effects upon mankind was Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations.* Adam Smith was an Oxford scholar and a Glasgow professor. In his famous book he contended that labor is the one source of wealth, and that it is by freedom of labor, by suffering the worker to pursue his own interest in his own way, that the national wealth can be promoted to the best advantage. He maintained that any effort to force labor into artificial channels, to shape the course of commerce by means of laws, to promote special branches of industry in particular countries, or to fix the character of the intercourse between one country and another, is not only wrong to the worker or the merchant, but also really injurious to the wealth of the nation.

The *Wealth of Nations* was published in 1776, and was studied by the younger Pitt during his career as an undergraduate at Cambridge. Thenceforth he followed Adam Smith's teachings. No sooner had Pitt become Prime Minister than he made the principles of the *Wealth of Nations* the groundwork of his economical policy. The first ten years of his long administration were characterized by a new departure in English statesmanship. The second William Pitt was the first English statesman who really comprehended the part that industry was to exercise in promoting the welfare of the world. He was not only a peace Minister and a financier like Sir Robert Walpole; but he was also a statesman who perceived that the freedom and development of commercial intercourse between nations was the best security for peace; that public economy not only diminished the public burdens, but also left additional capital in the hands of industry; and that finance might be turned from a mere means of raising revenue into a powerful engine of political and social improvement.

Pitt's failure to carry these principles into effect was partly attributable to the mass of ignorance and prejudice with which he had to contend, and still more to the sudden interruption of his plans through the French Revolution. His power depended mainly on the trading classes of England; and these classes still regarded gold and silver as wealth, and considered commerce as best pro-

moted by jealous monopolies. Only by patience and dexterity were the mob of merchants and country squires who supported Pitt in the House of Commons induced to consent to the reforms and innovations which he proposed. The failure of the first great measure which he introduced showed how small his power was when it struggled with the prejudices around him.

We have seen that the question of Parliamentary reform had been proposed before the War of American Independence, and that the elder Pitt, as Earl of Chatham, had advocated an increase of county members, who were then the most independent part of the House of Commons. The Duke of Richmond at that time talked of universal suffrage, equal electoral districts and annual Parliaments. Wilkes proposed to disfranchise the rotten boroughs and to give members in their stead to the counties and to the more populous and wealthy towns.

The second William Pitt had made the subject his own by proposing reform when he first entered the House of Commons; and one of his first measures was the introduction of a bill in 1785 which disfranchised thirty-six rotten boroughs at once and transferred their members to the counties, while providing for the gradual extinction of the remaining decayed boroughs. He induced King George III. to abstain from opposition, and endeavored to buy off the boroughmongers, or holders of rotten boroughs, by offering to compensate them for the seats which they lost at their market value.

But the bulk of Pitt's own party joined the bulk of the Whigs in steadily resisting his reform bill. The more glaring abuses within Parliament itself had mainly ceased to exist—the abuses which had aroused the elder Pitt and John Wilkes. Edmund Burke's Bill of Economical Reform had inflicted a fatal blow at the influence which the king exercised by abolishing a multitude of unnecessary offices, household appointments, and judicial and diplomatic charges, which were maintained for the sole purpose of corruption. The late triumph of public opinion had likewise contributed vastly to dispel any actual peril from the opposition hitherto manifested by Parliament to the voice of the English people. Wilberforce tells us that Pitt was "terribly disappointed and beat" by the rejection of his reform bill; but the sentiment of the House of Commons and of the nation was too plain to be mistaken, and he never again proposed his measure, though his opinion remained unaltered.

The second Pitt's financial measures were eminently successful. The public credit was almost ruined when he entered office. The national debt had been doubled by the War of American Independence, but large sums still remained unfunded; while the public revenue was reduced by a gigantic system of smuggling which made every coast town a nest of robbers. Pitt met the deficiency by new taxes, but the time thus gained served to change the entire aspect of public affairs. Though Pitt's first financial measure—his revival of the plan for gradually paying off the public debt by a sinking fund, which Sir Robert Walpole had discarded—was a mistake, it restored public confidence. Pitt put a stop to smuggling by a reduction of custom-duties, thus making the smuggling trade unprofitable. He revived Walpole's plan of an excise.

In the meantime Pitt's measures reduced the public expenses, and commissions were repeatedly appointed to introduce economy into every department of the public service. The rapid development of the national industry contributed to the success of Pitt's financial measures. Credit was restored, and the smuggling trade was vastly diminished. In two years there was a surplus of a million pounds in the national treasury; and, though the duties were gradually abolished, the public revenue steadily increased with every reduction of taxation.

In the meantime Pitt was showing the political value of the new finance. France was considered England's natural enemy. Ireland, then as now, was the sore spot on the British body-politic. Says Green: "The tyrannous misgovernment under which she had groaned ever since the battle of the

Boyne was producing its natural fruit." The unhappy country was distracted with political faction, religious feuds and peasant conspiracies. As we have seen, the attitude of the Protestant party in Ireland had become so threatening during the War of American Independence that the British Parliament was obliged to relinquish its control over the Irish Parliament at Dublin.

Pitt perceived that much of the misery and disloyalty of Ireland resulted from its poverty. The population of Ireland had grown rapidly, but culture remained stationary and commerce was ruined. And much of this Irish poverty directly resulted from unjust law. Ireland was a grazing country, but the import of Irish cattle into England was forbidden in order to protect the interests of English graziers. Irish manufacturers were burdened with duties in order to protect the interests of English clothiers and weavers.

Pitt's first financial effort was intended to redress the wrongs of Ireland resulting from the English tariff laws, and the bill which he introduced in 1785 removed every obstacle to free trade between England and Ireland. He asserted that the passage of the measure by the British Parliament would "draw what remained of the shattered empire together," and partially repair England's loss in the independence of her colonies in North America by creating a loyal and prosperous Ireland.

Although Pitt struggled almost alone in face of a fierce opposition from the Whigs and the Manchester merchants, he succeeded in securing its passage by the British Parliament only to have it rejected by the Irish Parliament, which was then ruled by the Protestant faction under Grattan.

But Pitt's failure in his efforts for free trade between England and Ireland only encouraged him to a greater effort in another direction; and his commercial treaty with France in 1787 enabled the subjects of either kingdom to reside and travel in the other without license or passport, dispensed with the prohibitory restrictions of trade on both sides, and reduced all import duties.

But the spirit of humanity which was exemplified by Pitt's measures of commercial freedom assumed a wider scope. The trial of Warren Hastings by the House of Lords was arousing England to a more vivid sympathy with her Hindoo subjects, and in 1788 the new philanthropy directed by William Wilberforce united with the religious spirit created by the brothers John and Charles Wesley in an attack on the iniquitous slave-trade.

At the time of the Peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the privilege of carrying negroes from the coast of Africa to sell them as laborers in the European colonies in America and the West Indies had been regarded as some of the gains reaped by England in the War of the Spanish Succession; but the horrors and iniquity of the traffic, the ruin and degradation of the native tribes of America which resulted therefrom, and the oppression of the negro himself, were now widely and deeply felt.

In 1788, "after a conversation in the open air at the root of an old tree at Holwood, just above the steep descent into the vale of Keston," Pitt encouraged his friend William Wilberforce, whose position as the Parliamentary representative of the Evangelical party gave prestige to his championship of so noble a cause, to introduce a bill for the abolition of the infamous slave-trade; but, notwithstanding Pitt's ardent support, Wilberforce's bill of 1788 was rejected by Parliament through the opposition of the Liverpool slave-merchants and through the general indifference of the House of Commons.

In the meantime the great extension of the British colonies gave a fresh stimulus to the spirit of maritime discovery, and English navigators penetrated into the remotest seas. Captain Phipps had made an ineffectual effort to discover a north-west passage to India in the early part of the reign of George III.; while Byron, Wallis, Carteret and Cook successively circumnavigated the globe, and discovered several new islands in the Pacific Ocean. Captain Cook discovered the Hawaian Islands, in the

North Pacific Ocean, in 1778, and was killed there in a contest with the natives in 1779. These islands were named the *Sandwich Islands*, in honor of Lord Sandwich, the First Lord of the Admiralty in Lord North's Ministry.

Captain Cook's three voyages aroused a spirit of enterprise almost equal to that awakened by the great discoveries of Columbus. The South Sea Islands soon became as well known in England as the islands of the Mediterranean, and their natural productions speedily constituted articles of commerce. Captain Cook himself suggested the expediency of forming a settlement on the coast of the vast island of New Holland, or Australia, the largest island of the world; and in 1786 Mr. Pitt's government resolved to transport convicts thither and give them an opportunity to retrieve their characters and reform their habits in that distant part of the world. The settlers there reformed, and became good colonists; and Australia, which has long ceased to be a penal colony, has outgrown the fostering care of the mother country and become one of England's most flourishing possessions, thus planting Anglo-Saxon liberty and civilization in that distant part of the globe.

In 1786 an insane woman named Margaret Nicholson made an attempt to assassinate King George III., as he was alighting from his carriage; but she was immediately seized, and the king remarked: "Don't hurt the poor woman; she must be mad." Her insanity being fully proven, she was sent to Bethlehem hospital, where she was kept securely guarded but unmolested.

In 1788 King George III. had a temporary attack of insanity, and of course the crisis demanded a regency. Mr. Fox insisted that the regency rightfully belonged to the Prince of Wales, while Mr. Pitt as vehemently asserted that Parliament alone could provide for such an emergency. After some spirited debates early in 1789, it was finally agreed that the Prince of Wales should be declared regent, but subject to some restrictions, and that the custody of the king's person should be intrusted to the queen, assisted by a council.

The Parliament of Ireland declared the Prince of Wales regent without any restriction whatever. This difference between the two Parliaments showed the weakness of the federal union between Great Britain and Ireland; and serious consequences might have followed but for the king's unexpected recovery, which thus dispensed with the necessity for a regency. From that time Pitt seemed to have resolved on uniting the two Parliaments. The king's recovery was hailed with joy throughout the kingdom, and was celebrated with splendid illuminations.

In 1789 the great French Revolution broke out—a revolution which was destined to change the face of the world and to involve England in a long but not inglorious war. The Puritan movement of the seventeenth century had finally checked the general tendency of the time to religious and political despotism in England. The Revolution of 1688 had practically established freedom of conscience and the English people's right to govern themselves through their representatives in Parliament. Social equality had begun in England long before. All Englishmen, from the highest to the lowest, were governed and protected by the same laws.

The English aristocracy, though exercising a powerful influence on the government, had few social privileges, and were prevented from constituting a separate class in the nation by the Law of Primogeniture and the social tradition which assigned all but the eldest son of a noble family to the rank of commoners. The gentry and the commercial classes were not separated from each other by any impassible barrier, and neither of these two classes possessed any privileges which could separate them from the lower classes of English society. After a short struggle, public opinion, the general sense of educated Englishmen, had become the dominant element in the English government.

It was, however, different in all the countries of Continental Europe. In those

lands the wars of religion resulting from the Reformation had left nothing but the name of freedom, and government there tended to a pure despotism. Privilege was supreme in religion, in politics, in society. Society itself in those countries rested on a rigid division of classes from one another, denying to the masses of the people any equal rights of justice or of industry. We have observed in a preceding section how incompatible such ideas of national life were with the notions which the wide diffusion of intelligence was spreading throughout Europe during the last half of the eighteenth century. We have also observed that in most of the countries of Continental Europe efforts were made by enlightened statesmen and sovereigns to redress existing wrongs by administrative reforms.

We shall afterward note in the history of the French Revolution how the political condition of France brought about the great crisis which was to overturn social and political institutions which had stood the test of a thousand years—how the aristocracy and the monarchy were overthrown, how the First French Republic was established, and how the French king's execution involved the new Republic in a general struggle with the crowned heads of Europe.

The French Revolution was viewed in England with quite different feelings by the two great parties in that country. While one party considered it the triumph of constitutional liberty, the Ministry and a large part of the English aristocracy regarded it as the triumph of anarchy over all legitimate and constituted authority. These feelings were not confined to the higher classes of English society, as the English masses shared largely in the hatred to the movement in France. In London a dinner to celebrate the capture of the Bastile by the Paris mob was adjourned through fear of popular resentment; and in Birmingham a festive meeting to commemorate the same event was dispersed by a furious mob, which afterward proceeded to destroy the chapels of Dissenters and the houses of all sympathizers with the French Revolution. A furious mob burned the house, library and valuable apparatus of the great scientist and Unitarian divine Joseph Priestley because of his sympathy with this great popular rising in a neighboring kingdom. Priestley emigrated to the United States in 1794, and settled at Northumberland, Pennsylvania, where he died in 1804, and where his remains were interred.

The destruction of the Bastile by the Paris mob, July 14, 1789, created great joy everywhere. Charles James Fox exclaimed with a burst of enthusiasm: "How much is this the greatest event that ever happened in the world, and how much the best!" The Whigs sided with their leader in his sympathy with the French Revolution; while the Tories adhered to Pitt, who looked with characteristic coolness and indifference upon the approach of the French to sentiments of liberty which had long been familiar to England.

For the time Pitt's attention was occupied with schemes to defend Poland and Turkey against the ruthless ambition of the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia, and for this purpose he entered into an alliance with Prussia and Holland; but, as a war with Russia was unpopular in Great Brittain, Pitt was not sustained in his Russian policy by Parliament, and was therefore obliged to discontinue his armaments; while Prussia joined Russia in a new attack on the independence of Poland in 1792, after the Peace of Jassey between Russia and Turkey.

In 1790 Great Britain became involved in a dispute with Spain about the possession of Nootka Sound, on the Pacific coast of North America, where an English settlement had been planted, which was seized by the Spaniards, who made the settlers prisoners. Great Britain quickly prepared an armament at the cost of three million pounds sterling; but, as Spain was unprepared for war, the dispute was soon adjusted by negotiation.

In 1790 the East India Company became involved in a new war with Tippoo Saib,

Sultan of Mysore. In 1791 and 1792 he was completely defeated before his capital, Seringapatam, by Lord Cornwallis, then Governor-General of British India; and in 1792 he was obliged to purchase peace by the cession of a considerable part of his territories to the East India Company and by the payment of a large war-indemnity, giving his sons as hostages for the fulfillment of the conditions of the treaty.

As we have seen, Charles James Fox, as the leader of the Whigs, openly sympathized with the French Revolution; while Prime Minister Pitt, who was a peace man, and was sustained by the Tories, regarded the Revolution with unconcern. Though the desertion of Pitt by the Whigs had driven him out of the Whig party and obliged him to accept the support of the Tories, thus virtually making him the leader of the Tory party, he did not share the distrust of the French Revolution which was felt by the Tories in general. Pitt, being a peaceful statesman, was unfitted for the direction of a great war; and he struggled hard to prevent Great Britain from becoming involved in a war with Revolutionary France. In January, 1790, he expressed the opinion that "the present convulsions in France must sooner or later culminate in general harmony and regular order," and that when French freedom is established "France will stand forth as one of the most brilliant powers of Europe."

But Pitt's coolness and good-will toward the French Revolution was not shared by all his Tory followers. The cautious good-sense of the majority of Englishmen, their love of law and order, their aversion to violent changes and abstract theories, and their reverence for the past, were fast creating throughout England a dislike for the revolutionary changes in progress in France. This English dislike was slowly developing into fear and hatred through the impassioned eloquence of Edmund Burke, whose conservatism and love for order and for established institutions made him one of the most inveterate foes of the French Revolution.

Edmund Burke had come to London forty years before, a poor and unknown Irish adventurer. His learning gained for him the friendship of the great literary leader, Dr. Samuel Johnson, and of the great painter, Sir Joshua Reynolds; but natural inclination drew Burke to politics, and the poor Irish youth became secretary to the Marquis of Rockingham, under whose patronage he was elected to the British House of Commons in 1765. Like the elder William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, and like John Wilkes, Colonel Barre, Charles James Fox and Lord Camden—prominent as Whig leaders in Parliament—Edmund Burke was a friend and champion of the Anglo-American colonists in their opposition to Parliamentary taxation of the colonies, sustaining their stand of "no taxation without representation." His speeches against the Stamp Act and the policy of Lord North's Ministry toward the Americans before and during the War of American Independence soon gained for him the fame of an orator. Said Charles James Fox, concerning Burke's oratory: "I have learned more from him than from all the books I ever read."

But Burke's eloquence, which had vied with that of the elder Pitt during the Parliamentary debates on the Stamp Act, at length become distasteful to the majority of the members of the House of Commons, because of the length of his speeches, the profound and philosophical character of his arguments, the splendor and frequent extravagance of his illustrations, his passionate earnestness, his lack of temper and discretion; and eventually the wearied and perplexed merchants and squires left their seats in the House of Commons whenever he rose to speak, so that he came to be known as "the dinner-bell of the House." Burke's prominent part in the impeachment and trial of Warren Hastings for a time gave scope to his energies, and the grandeur of his appeals to the justice of England in her treatment of India silenced detraction; but after the close of the impeachment his repute had again fallen, and as he was now past sixty years of age it seemed

the part of wisdom that he should retire from an assembly where he stood unpopular and alone. Richard Brinsley Sheridan, another young Irishman, also became a member of the British House of Commons, and distinguished himself during the trial of Warren Hastings by his oratory; and, besides being a great statesman and Parliamentary orator, he also acquired renown as a lawyer and a dramatist.

Burke's sense of justice and hatred of oppression had made him the friend of the Americans in their opposition to Parliamentary taxation, and the champion of the rights of the Hindoos against the extortion and tyranny of Warren Hastings; but his innate conservatism, his reverence for the past and for the sanctity of established institutions, his veneration for law and order, his hatred of anarchy and social chaos, made him the most inveterate foe of the French Revolution. It was this feeling which led him to oppose Pitt's measures of Parliamentary reform. He looked upon the Revolution of 1688 as having closed for all time a great era of national progress which had moved on "from precedent to precedent."

To sustain his position, Burke quoted a declaration made by the Convention-Parliament of 1689 to William and Mary in these words: "The Lords Temporal and Spiritual, and Commons, do, in the name of the people aforesaid, most humbly and faithfully submit themselves, their heirs and posterity forever." Burke also quoted another act of Parliament of the reign of William and Mary, the terms of which he said "bind us, our heirs and our posterity to them, their heirs and posterity to the end of time." Burke further said that "if the people of England possessed such a right before the Revolution, yet that the English nation did at the time of the Revolution most solemnly renounce and abdicate it for themselves and for all their posterity forever."

Said Burke: "The equilibrium of the Constitution has something so delicate about it that the least displacement may destroy it." He went on to say: "It is a difficult and dangerous matter even to touch so complicated a machine." In a speech on the Canadian Constitution bill Burke said, concerning the United States: "America never dreamed of such absurd doctrine as the rights of man."

Burke's theory made him hostile to all movement whatever, and he passionately sustained the helpless inaction of the Whigs. He ardently admired the Marquis of Rockingham, an honest and upright man, but the weakest of party leaders. Burke sought to check Parliamentary corruption by his bill in 1782 providing for civil retrenchment, but he led in defeating all plans for Parliamentary reform. He was the one man in England who understood with Pitt the value of free industry; but he nevertheless bitterly opposed Pitt's proposals to give free trade to Ireland, and also ardently disapproved of Pitt's commercial treaty with France in 1787. He sustained the policy of inaction and timid content which the Whigs had inherited from Sir Robert Walpole. His intense belief in the natural development of a nation rendered him incapable of understanding that any good could result from particular laws or special reforms.

The storming of the Bastile by the Paris mob, which kindled such enthusiasm in Fox, filled Burke with apprehension and alarm. Said he: "Whenever a separation is made between liberty and justice neither is safe." While Pitt was predicting a glorious future for the French Constitution, Burke asserted: "The French—the French have shown themselves the ablest architects of ruin who have hitherto existed in the world. In a short space of time they have pulled to the ground their army, their navy, their commerce, their arts and their manufactures."

But Burke at this time stood alone in Parliament; as the Whigs followed Fox in his applause of the French Revolution, while the Tories distrustfully followed Pitt, who warmly expressed his sympathy with the constitutional government which had just been established in France. While

Pitt was striving for friendship between Great Britain and Revolutionary France, Burke was resolved to make such friendship impossible. As he stood alone in the House of Commons and as Parliament paid no attentions to his passionate appeals, he appealed to his country through his pen; and his work entitled *Reflections on the French Revolution*, which he published in October, 1790, not only denounced the violent popular uprising which had swept away the Church and nobility of France, destroyed the ordered structure of classes and ranks, established a constitution founded on the doctrine of social equality, rudely demolished and reconstituted a state, threatened the whole social fabric with ruin, and thus inaugurated a revolution founded on scorn for the past; but he denounced the very principles from which this great change had sprung—this embodiment of all that he hated.

Burke's deep sense of the grandeur of social order, of the value of permanence and stability in human institutions, "without which men would become like flies in a summer," made him blind to everything but dread of popular revolt. He obstinately refused to see any abuses in the past, as the past had now been wiped out; and he perceived nothing but ruin and chaos for society in the future. He therefore preached a crusade against the Revolutionists of France, whom he considered the enemies of religion, of civilization, of social order, and called upon the crowned heads of Europe to employ their armies in crushing a revolution whose principles threatened every state of Europe with utter ruin.

Burke found a great obstacle to such a crusade in Pitt; and one of the grandest outbursts of his *Reflections on the French Revolution* ended with this bitter taunt at the peaceful Prime Minister: "The age of Chivalry is gone; that of sophisters, economists and calculators has succeeded, and the glory of Europe is extinguished forever." But Pitt was not moved from his course by taunts or invective; and at the very time of the appearance of Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution* he again assured France of his resolve not to take any part in a crusade against the Revolution, expressing his determination thus in writing: "This country means to persevere in the neutrality hitherto scrupulously observed with respect to the internal dissensions of France, and from which it will never depart unless the conduct held there make it indispensable as an act of self-defense."

So little did Pitt share in the apprehensions of some of his Tory followers as to the effect of the French Revolution on the stability of English institutions that in 1791 he supported Mr. Fox in his *Libel Act*, which completed the freedom of the press in Great Britain by transferring the decision on what was libelous in any publication from the judge to the jury. In 1791 Pitt himself put aside the dread which had been aroused in England by the War of American Independence by carrying a bill through the House of Commons conceding the right of self-government to the two Canadas by giving each of them a House of Assembly and a Council. Said Fox, who heartily supported this measure: "I am convinced that the only method of retaining distant colonies with advantage is to enable them to govern themselves." Pitt's policy and Fox's foresight have been justified by the subsequent history of the British dependencies. Mr. Wilberforce's motion for the abolition of the slave-trade was again rejected by Parliament by a considerable majority.

Burke was no more successful with his own party, the Whigs; as Fox remained an ardent supporter of the French Revolution, and replied to another attack of Burke upon it with more than his usual warmth. Hitherto these two statesmen had entertained the most ardent affection for each other, but Burke's fanaticism declared it at an end. Fox exclaimed with a sudden burst of tears: "There is no loss of friendship!" Burke responded: "There is. I know the price of my conduct. Our friendship is at an end."

Burke stood wholly alone in Parliament.

His *Appeal from the Old to the New Whigs*, in June, 1791, did not detach a follower from Fox. Pitt coldly advised Burke to praise the English Constitution rather than rail at the French. Burke wrote sadly to the French princes, who had fled from their country and were raising an army at Coblentz: "I have made many enemies and few friends by the part I have taken."

But English public opinion was slowly drifting to Burke's side, as the sentiment of Englishmen was echoed by the sale of thirty thousand copies of his *Reflections on the French Revolution*. England was in no mood to appreciate the mighty political and social upheaval across the English Channel, as her temper was industrial above everything else. Men who were working hard and growing rich, who had the narrow and practical turn of business men, were angry at the Revolution's disturbance of social order, its restless and vague activity, its rhetorical appeals to human emotion, its abstract and frequently empty theories. England was at this time blessed with political content and social well-being, with steady economic progress and a powerful religious revival; and Englishmen failed to perceive that every element of this content, of this order, of this peaceful and harmonious progress, of this reconciliation of society with religion, was lacking in other lands.

The general sympathy which the French Revolution had at first excited in England slowly changed to disgust in consequence of the violence of the legislative changes in France, the anarchy of that country, the bankruptcy of its treasury, and the growing power of the Paris mob. English sympathy with the Revolution was soon confined to a few groups of reformers who gathered in "Constitutional Clubs," and whose reckless language simply hastened the national reaction. But notwithstanding Burke's appeals, and the cries of the emigrant nobles of France who had sought refuge outside their country and who longed to invade it, the other nations of Europe hesitated to make war on the Revolution, and Pitt persevered in his attitude of neutrality.

Pitt was anxious for the restoration of tranquillity in France in order to protect Poland and Turkey from the grasping ambition of the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia. He accordingly frustrated a plan of the emigrant nobles of France for a descent on the French coast, and formally announced at Vienna that Great Britain would maintain a strict neutrality in case of war between Revolutionary France and the German Empire. But the Emperor Leopold II. was as anxious to remain at peace with France as was England's Prime Minister himself. After her Peace of Jassy with Turkey, in January, 1792, Russia's great Empress desired to plunge Austria and Prussia in war with France in order to leave her free to annex the whole of Poland to her dominions; but the Austrian and Prussian monarchs would now allow their hands to be thus tied.

But the progress of events rendered the continuance of peace impossible, as the emigrant nobles had raised an army on the Rhine; and in April, 1792, Revolutionary France declared war against Austria and Prussia. Pitt still determined to hold England neutral; and in 1792 he announced a reduction of the military forces of Great Britain, and brought forward a peace budget in Parliament resting on a large remission of taxation.

But the maintenance of peace between England and France beame more impossible daily; as the French Revolutionists were striving to arouse the Constitutional Clubs in England to excite the same revolutionary spirit in that country that existed in France, in order to procure the alliance of the English people in the war with Austria and Prussia. Chauvelin, the French ambassador in England, boldly protested against a proclamation which denounced this seditious correspondence. Even Fox now declared that the discussion of Parliamentary reform was inexpedient in such an emergency.

In the meantime Burke was exerting himself to his utmost by his pen to spread alarm throughout Europe at the violence of the

French Revolution. He had encouraged the French emigrant nobles from the first to take up arms against the Revolutionists, and had sent his son to join them at Coblentz. He wrote to them: "Be alarmists; diffuse terror!" But their conduct and the Austro-Prussian invasion of France in July, 1792, produced a revolutionary "Reign of Terror" in France, which ended in the bloodiest insurrections and massacres in Paris, the overthrow of the monarchy, the establishment of the First French Republic, and the complete triumph of the Paris mob and the Paris Commune.

The defeat and retreat of the Austro-Prussian invaders from France, and the invasion of the Austrian Netherlands by the triumphant French, encouraged the French National Convention to declare that France offered the aid of her armies to all nations that would strive for freedom, its president saying: "All governments are our enemies; all peoples are our allies." The action of Revolutionary France in violating treaties signed with England only two years before by invading Holland rendered England's participation in the war inevitable.

Public opinion in England was pressing harder upon Pitt daily. The horror of the Reign of Terror in France and the despotism of the Paris mob had done more to estrange English sympathy from the French Revolution than all Burke's eloquence had done. But Pitt obstinately struggled for peace even after the withdrawal of the British ambassador from Paris upon the overthrow and imprisonment of King Louis XVI. England's Prime Minister had hindered Holland from joining Austria and Prussia in the war against Revolutionary France. He hoped to end the war through England's mediation, and, as he expressed it, to "leave France, which I believe is the best way, to arrange its own internal affairs as it can."

The greatest hour of Pitt's life was when he stood alone in England for the preservation of peace, and refused to yield to the growing popular demand for war with Revolutionary France. The news of the September massacres only induced Pitt to express the hope that the French would refrain from a war of conquest and escape from their social anarchy. In October, 1792, the French ambassador in England reported that Pitt was about to recognize the French Republic. At the opening of November he still urged Holland to remain neutral in the war.

But the aggressive action of France left Pitt no other alternative than war. The decree of the French National Convention and the French invasion of Holland rendered England's participation in the war inevitable, as it was impossible for England to desert her ally. Even in December, 1792, Pitt made a last effort for peace, on the eve of the Second Partition of Poland. He offered to aid Austria to acquire Bavaria if she would make peace with France, and pledged himself to France to remain at peace with her if she would respect the territory of her neighbors. But the French Revolutionists only interpreted his moderation as the result of fear, while the general mourning in England on the receipt of the news of the execution of King Louis XVI. showed the growing ardor of the English people for the inevitable struggle. Diplomacy between England and France was broken off; and France declared war against England and Holland in February, 1793, and two weeks later against Spain.

Pitt's power was at an end from the moment of the French Republic's declaration of war against England, though he remained Prime Minister with little intermission for the remaining thirteen years of his life. Though his pride, his immovable firmness and the general confidence of the British nation still kept him at the head of public affairs, he thenceforth drifted along with a tide of popular feeling which he never understood fully. He was unfitted for the conduct of a war by the very excellence of his character. He was actually a peace Minister, forced into war by a panic and enthusiasm which he shared in a very small degree, without his illustrious father's gift of at once entering into the sympathies and

passions of the English people, or of arousing their sympathies and passions in return.

Pitt's task at home politically was an easy one, as the British nation was united by its desire for war. Even the bulk of the Whigs, headed by the Duke of Portland, Lords Fitzwilliam and Spencer, and Mr. Wyndham, deserted Mr. Fox when he remained firm in his sympathy with Revolutionary France, and gave their support to the Ministry.

The violence of the French Revolution and the execution of King Louis XVI. had produced a coalition of almost all the crowned heads of Europe against the French Republic early in 1793, and their armies invaded France on all sides. As we shall describe the events of this war in the section on the French Revolution, we will merely state in this connection that the invasion was defeated on all the French frontiers and that the armies of the French Republic were everywhere successful, compelling the allies to retreat and to act on the defensive. But the British fleet under Lord Howe defeated the French navy off the western coast of France, June 1, 1794.

Pitt was earnest for peace, as he was without the means for prosecuting the war efficiently. The British army was small and without military experience, while its leaders were wholly incompetent. Lord Grenville, the British Minister of Foreign Affairs, wrote: "We have no general but some old woman in a red ribbon." Besides England's military weakness and defect, Pitt had other reasons for desiring the end of the war. He felt that the war was undoing all that he had done, impassive and inflexible as he appeared. The increase of the public burdens in England was dreadful. Although England had few soldiers she was the wealthiest nation of the world, and Pitt was obliged to utilize her wealth in the prosecution of the war. He made England the paymaster of the European coalition against Revolutionary France, and English subsidies brought the allied armies into the field. Pitt raised immense loans for this purpose, and for a war expenditure at home which was both extravagant and unnecessary. The public debt of Great Britain was increased by leaps and bounds. Taxation, which under Pitt's peace administration had reached its lowest point, now attained a height before unknown.

The public suffering in England was increased by a general panic. Burke had only succeeded too well in his resolve to "diffuse the terror." The partisans of France and of republicanism in England were really only a few men who assembled conventions and called themselves citizens and patriots in imitation of the French Revolutionists. But the dread of revolution in England soon passed the limits of reason. Even Pitt, though still unaffected by the political reaction in England, was influenced by the alarm of social danger, and believed in the existence of "thousands of bandits" who were ready to rise against the British throne, to murder every landlord and to sack London. Said he to his niece who quoted to him Thomas Paine's *Rights of Man*, in which that author had vindicated the principles of the French Revolution. "Paine is no fool; he is perhaps right; but if I did what he wants, I should have thousands of bandits on my hands to-morrow, and London burned."

Pitt thus shared with Parliament and the British nation at large the belief in a social danger. The Ministry suspended the Habeas Corpus Act, while a new act of Parliament against seditious assemblies restricted the liberty of public meeting, and a wider scope was given to the Statute of Treasons. The Ministry directed frequent prosecutions against the press, while some Nonconformist clergymen were indicted for preaching seditious sermons, and conventions of sympathizers with Revolutionary France were roughly dispersed by the authorities. The worst excesses of this general panic were manifested in Scotland, where some young Whigs who merely advocated Parliamentary reform were sentenced to banishment, and where a brutal judge openly expressed his regret that the practice of torture in cases of sedition should have ceased.

But in England the social panic soon disappeared as suddenly as it had risen. In 1794 three leaders of the Corresponding Society, a body sympathizing with the French Revolution—Thelwall, Hardy and Horne Tooke—were brought to trial at the Old Bailey on a charge of high-treason, and were acquitted after a patient investigation of several days. The prisoners themselves acknowledged that they desired to effect great changes in the British Constitution, but it was clearly proven that they wished to obtain reform only by legal and constitutional methods and that they were opposed to violence and insurrection. Their acquittal showed that the terror in England was over.

In 1795, however, there were symptoms of discontent in different parts of England, in consequence of the ill-success of the war and the distress occasioned by the unprecedented taxation. The poor were goaded to riots by sheer want of bread. The people of London suffered intensely from the interruption of commerce occasioned by the war; and some of the lower classes, irritated by their protracted misery, assailed the king's carriage by pelting it with stones as His Majesty went in state to the House of Lords, October 29, 1795. But this outrage strengthened the Ministry; as Parliament, exasperated at the indignity thus offered to the sovereign, passed several acts for the suppression of sedition. These bills, which greatly restricted English freedom, were perhaps rendered necessary by the peculiar circumstances of the period.

In 1795 the Prince of Wales married his cousin, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick, in order to procure the payment of his debts; but soon after the birth of a daughter, early in 1796, the parents finally separated, never living together thereafter.

The defeats of the allies led to the dissolution of the European coalition against the French Republic in the spring of 1795, after the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands and Holland by the French armies. Prussia, Spain and the smaller allied powers made peace, thus leaving England and Austria alone in the war against Revolutionary France.

Though military failure on the Continent of Europe, and panic and distress in England, had made Pitt anxious to end the war with Revolutionary France, he was almost alone in his desire for peace. The English people were still ardent for the continuance of the war; and their military ardor was intensified by Burke's *Letters on a Regicide Peace*, which denounced Pitt's effort to negotiate with the French Republic in 1796.

France was as ardent for the continuance of the war as England, in consequence of the brilliant victories of the youthful Napoleon Bonaparte over the Austrians in Italy; and after the Peace of Campo Formio between France and Austria, October 17, 1797, Great Britain alone remained at war with the French Republic. Spain and Holland had become allies of France and enemies of England.

At this time England's credit was at its lowest ebb, and the enormous expenses of the war exhausted the resources of Great Britain to such an extent that the Bank of England suspended specie payments early in 1797, thus giving rise to an issue of paper money. Two alarming mutinies broke out in the British navy at the same time, that at Spithead being settled by giving the seamen increased pay, but that at the Nore being only quelled by bloodshed and by the execution of the ringleaders.

In this dark hour of the struggle, in 1797, Burke died, protesting to the very last against peace with Revolutionary France; while Pitt opened fresh negotiations at Lille, but his efforts were again thwarted by the undying hatred of the two nations. A threat of French invasion ended the depression and disunion in England. Credit revived; and, in spite of the enormous taxation, a public subscription poured two million pounds into the national treasury toward the expenses of the war.

At the same time public confidence in England was restored by the victories of her navy—that of Admiral Sir John Jervis over the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent,

on the coast of Portugal, February 14, 1797; that of Admiral Duncan over the Dutch fleet at Camperdown, on the coast of Holland, October 11, 1797; and that of Admiral Nelson over the French fleet in the battle of the Nile, August 1, 1798, while pursuing Bonaparte in his expedition to Egypt.

In rejecting Pitt's peace offers, the French Republic had counted on an outbreak in Ireland against British authority in 1798, and on the new war which Tippoo Saib, Sultan of Mysore, began against the English in India. The Irish rising was crushed by British troops in a defeat of the rebels at Vinegar Hill in 1798; and the war in India was ended by the storming and capture of Seringapatam, the capital of Mysore, and by the death of Tippoo Saib, who fell in the defense of his capital, May 4, 1799; after which Mysore was annexed to the territories of the English East India Company.

The Governors-General of British India during this period were Sir John Shore, who succeeded Lord Cornwallis in 1793, and who was himself succeeded by Lord Cornwallis in 1796. Sir Alured Clarke became Governor-General in 1798, and the Earl of Mornington in the same year. Lord Cornwallis, who had in the meantime been Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and whose mild and merciful measures had contributed to restore tranquillity in that country after the rebellion of 1798, was made Governor-General of British India a third time in 1805; but he died during the same year near Benares.

Bonaparte's invasion of Egypt and Syria induced Mr. Pitt to unite Austria, Russia, Turkey and Naples with England in a second coalition against the French Republic in 1799; but after the Austrians and Russians had driven the French from Germany and Italy the coalition fell to pieces, and England and Austria only remained at war with France. The defeats of the Austrians at Marengo and Hohenlinden in 1800 led to the Peace of Luneville between France and Austria, February 9, 1801, leaving England again alone in the war against France.

But when Great Britain thus stood once more alone in the war with France, Pitt achieved his greatest political triumph in the Constitutional Union of Ireland with Great Britain. As we have seen, the Ministry of the Marquis of Rockingham in 1782 had granted the legislative independence of Ireland; and for the next eighteen years, A. D. 1782–1800, Ireland was independent of Great Britain in everything but its subjection to the British crown; but its independence was only a name for the uncontrollable rule of a few noble families.

The victory of the Protestant volunteers of Ireland had been won merely to the advantage of the "Parliamentary undertakers," who selected the majority of the members of the Irish House of Commons, while they themselves constituted the Irish House of Lords. Ireland was left at the mercy of these men by the suspension of control or interference from England, and they soon showed that they intended to keep to themselves the power which they thus possessed.

When the native Irish Catholics demanded admission to the franchise and to equal civil rights with the Protestants, as a reward for their assistance in the recent struggle for Irish legislative independence, their just claim was rejected by the selfish Protestant faction. When the Presbyterians, who formed half of the Protestant volunteers, made a similar demand for the removal of civil and political disabilities they were also ignored. Even Grattan utterly failed when he pleaded for a reform which would make the Parliament of Ireland at least a fair representative of the Protestant population of the island.

The Protestant ruling class found political power too profitable to share it with others. Only by the hardest bribery could the British government secure the coöperation of this ruling class of Ireland in the simplest measures of administration. Said Lord Hutchinson: "If ever there was a country unfit to govern itself, it is Ireland. A corrupt aristocracy, a ferocious commonalty, a distracted government, a divided people."

The real character of Ireland's Parlia-

mentary rule was seen in its rejection of Pitt's offer of free trade between England and Ireland. Pitt considered Ireland's chief danger in the misery of its native population rather than in its factious aristocracy. He perceived that the discontent of the native Catholic Irish was rapidly growing into rebellion, although they were kept down by the mere brute force of their Protestant rulers. He also observed that one cause of this discontent was Irish poverty, which had been increased, if not produced, by the jealous exclusion of Irish products from their natural markets in England.

One of Pitt's first commercial measures was a bill to put an end to this exclusion by establishing freedom of trade between England and Ireland; but, though he succeeded in silencing the jealousy of the English farmers and the English manufacturers, he was thwarted by the factious ignorance of the Irish landowners, and his bill was rejected by the Irish Parliament after it had passed the English Parliament.

Pitt was so completely discouraged that he was only roused to fresh measures of conciliation and good government for Ireland by the outbreak of the French Revolution and by the efforts which Revolutionary France was making to excite rebellion among the native Catholic Irish. In 1792 he forced on the Irish Parliament measures providing for the admission of native Irish Roman Catholics to the elective franchise and to all civil and military offices in Ireland, which promised to begin a new era of religious liberty in that oppressed land; but the promise came too late. The hope of conciliation was lost in the fast rising tide of religious and social passion.

The Protestants of Ulster organized an association of *United Irishmen* for the purpose of obtaining Parliamentary reform, and this association engaged in a correspondence with Revolutionary France and in schemes of rebellion. The native Catholic Irish peasantry, brooding over their misery and wrongs, were also roused by the French Revolution; and their disaffection manifested itself in outrages committed by organizations known as *Defenders* and *Peep-o'-day Boys*, who filled Ireland with terror. But for a while the Protestant landowners banded themselves together in *Orange Societies*, which kept down the native Catholic population by sheer terror and bloodshed.

Finally the smouldering disaffection broke out in a general conflagration, and Catholic Ireland was driven into rebellion by the lawless cruelty of the Orange yeomanry and the English troops. In 1796 and 1797 English soldiers and Orange yeomanry marched through the unhappy country torturing and scourging the "croppies," as the insurgents were called in derision because of their short-cut hair. The outrages of robbery and murder perpetrated by this soldiery and yeomanry were sanctioned by a *Bill of Indemnity* passed by the Irish Parliament, and were protected for the future by an *Insurrection Act*, also passed by the Irish Parliament, and by a suspension of the Habeas Corpus.

In the meantime the United Irishmen prepared for an insurrection, which was delayed by the failure of the French expeditions on which they had relied for aid, and especially by the British naval victory over the Dutch fleet at Camperdown. Atrocities were perpetrated on both sides, and the revolt of the United Irishmen finally broke out in 1798. The rebels lashed and tortured loyal Protestants in their turn, and mercilessly massacred the English soldiers whom they took prisoners. But as soon as the rebels had mustered fifteen thousand men in a strong camp on Vinegar Hill, near Enniscorthy, in County Wexford, that camp was stormed by the English troops under General Lake, who thus thoroughly suppressed the rebellion.

The suppression of the revolt of the United Irishmen only came in time to prevent greater calamities. A few weeks after the end of the rebellion a thousand French troops under General Humbert landed at Killala, in County Mayo, vanquished a force of three thousand English troops in a battle at Castlebar, and only surrendered when Lord Cornwallis, then Lord Lieuten-

ant of Ireland, faced them with thirty thousand English troops. Lord Cornwallis, who was a wise and humane ruler, found more difficulty in checking the reprisals of his English troops and of the Orangemen than in extinguishing the last sparks of rebellion; but his mild and merciful measures soon restored tranquillity to the island.

Prime Minister Pitt's disgust at "the bigoted fury of Irish Protestants" made him firmly resolve to end the farce of "Irish Independence," which left the unhappy country helpless at the mercy of the Protestant faction which ruled the Irish Parliament. The course of the Irish Parliament in the disputes over the regency of the Prince of Wales during the king's temporary insanity in 1788 had impressed every English statesman with the political necessity for a union of Ireland with Great Britain under one Parliament. As the only union between Great Britain and Ireland was the union of the two island kingdoms under one sovereign, the controversy of the two Parliaments might have ended in the total separation of the two kingdoms by the severance of the only link which united them. In consequence of this danger, Pitt's proposal to unite the two Parliaments was welcomed in England.

The Irish borough-mongers obstinately and resolutely opposed Pitt's measure for the Constitutional Union of the two kingdoms; but the English Prime Minister overcame their opposition by the influence of gold, and bought the assent of the Irish Parliament with a million pounds in money and with a liberal distribution of pensions and peerages to its members. Only by such wholesale bribery was Pitt able to procure the passage of an *Act of Union* by the Irish Parliament.

After the Act of Union had been passed by the British and Irish Parliaments, and the matter finally arranged in June, 1800, Ireland was represented in the British House of Commons by one hundred members, and in the British House of Lords by twenty-eight temporal and four spiritual peers, chosen for each Parliament by their fellows. All restrictions on the commerce between the two islands were removed, and all the trading privileges of each were thrown open to the other; while a proportionate distribution of taxation was arranged between the two peoples thus united for the first time under one Parliament. The Act of Union went into effect on the first day of the nineteenth century, January 1, 1801, when the Irish Lords and Commons for the first time took their seats in the Parliament at Westminster, which was the beginning of the *United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.*

Pitt's lavish creation of Irish peers, which constituted a part of the price which he paid for the Constitutional Union of Ireland with Great Britain, was only an instance of his deliberate policy in dealing with the peerage in general; and, although he did not succeed in reforming the British House of Commons, he brought about a practical change in the British Constitution by his reform of the House of Lords.

Few legislative bodies have varied more in the number of their members than the English House of Lords. At the end of the Wars of the Roses only thirty Lords remained to take their seats. During Queen Elizabeth's reign they numbered sixty, and the Stuarts so enlarged the peerage that they amounted to one hundred and sixty-eight. This last number was not increased to any extent during the reigns of the first two Georges, and Lord Stanhope would have restricted the peerage to the number which it had then reached had he not been prevented by the dogged opposition of Sir Robert Walpole. Though such a limitation would have been mischievous, it would have prevented the lavish creation of peers on which King George III. relied in the early part of his reign as a means of breaking up the party government which restrained him.

But what was with King George III. a mere means of corruption became with the second William Pitt a settled purpose of so altering the peerage that instead of remaining a narrow and exclusive caste it would become a large representation of the wealth

of England. He expressed his design as intended to use the House of Lords as a means of rewarding merit, to bring the peerage into closer relations with the landowning and opulent classes, and to render the crown independent of factious combinations among the existing peers. While Pitt therefore had a disdain for hereditary honors, he lavished them with more profusion than any Prime Minister before him had done. He created fifty new peers during the first five years of his Ministry, A. D. 1783–1788. In 1796 and 1797 he created thirty-five. By 1801 the peerage had been so enlarged as the price of the Constitutional Union between Great Britain and Ireland that Pitt's created peers numbered one hundred and forty-one. Pitt's successors so busily followed his example that at the end of the reign of George III., in 1820, there were double the number of hereditary peers that there had been at the time of his accession, in 1760.

The change in the peerage was not only an increase of numbers, but it was also a change in the whole character of the House of Lords. Hitherto that body had been a small assembly of great nobles, united by family or party ties so as to form a distinct power in the kingdom. Pitt completely revolutionized the Upper House of Parliament by giving it new members from the middle and commercial class, who constituted the basis of his political power—small landowners, bankers, merchants, nabobs, lawyers, army contractors, soldiers and seamen. Instead of remaining the stronghold of blood and hereditary aristocracy as it had hitherto been, the House of Lords thus became the stronghold of property—the representative of the great estates and great fortunes built up by the vast increase of English wealth. For the first time in English history the House of Lords also became the distinctly conservative element in the British Constitution.

The full import of Pitt's changes still remains to be revealed, but in some respects their results have been far different from what was intended. The increased number of the peerage, though due to the will of the crown, has virtually freed the Upper House of Parliament from any influence which the crown can exert by the distribution of honors. This change has rendered it still more difficult to reconcile the free action of the House of Lords with the regular working of constitutional government, because the power of the crown has been practically wielded by the House of Commons, the republican part of the British government. But the increased number of the peerage has also rendered the House of Lords more responsive to public opinion when public opinion is strongly pronounced, while the political tact inherent in great aristocratic assemblies has hitherto prevented any collision between the two Houses of Parliament from ending in an irreconcilable quarrel. The most direct result of the change is the popularity of the House of Lords with the masses of the English people. The large number of its members, and the constant increase of the number from almost all classes of English society, have thus far secured it from the suspicion and ill-will which in most other constitutional governments has hampered the effective working of an upper legislative chamber.

The legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland was but a part of the plan which Pitt had conceived for the conciliation of Ireland. With the conclusion of the Parliamentary Union his project of free trade between the two islands, which had failed several years before through the folly of the Irish Parliament, was now quietly accomplished; and, in spite of inadequate capital and social disquiet, the increase of the trade, the shipping and the manufactures of Ireland has ever since proceeded unchecked. The change which placed Ireland directly under the British Parliament was followed by a gradual revision of its oppressive laws and an improvement in their administration; while Irish taxation was lightened, and a slight beginning was made in public instruction in Ireland.

But Pitt regarded the concession of relig-

ious equality as the great means of Ireland's conciliation. When he had proposed the Parliamentary Union of the two island kingdoms he had pointed out to the British Parliament that when Ireland was united with such Protestant countries as England and Scotland there would be no danger of a Catholic supremacy in Ireland in case of the removal of Catholic disabilities, and he had suggested that in such an event "an effectual and adequate provision for the Catholic clergy" would be a security for their loyalty to the British government. Pitt's words gave promise to the hopes of "Catholic Emancipation," or the removal of the civil and political disabilities of the Irish Roman Catholics, which Lord Castlereagh held out in Ireland for the purpose of preventing any Catholic opposition to the plan of Constitutional Union with Great Britain. All parties were aware that the opposition of the Catholic Irish would have defeated the projected Union, but no Catholic opposition to the project was manifested in Ireland.

After the passage of the Act of Union, Pitt prepared to submit to the British Cabinet a measure which would have raised both Roman Catholics and Dissenters to perfect equality of civil and political rights. In this measure Pitt proposed to remove all religious tests which restricted the franchise or which were required for admission to Parliament, the magistracy, the bar, municipal offices, or situations in the civil or military service of the United Kingdom. Pitt's measure provided for political security by the imposition of an oath of allegiance and of fidelity to the British Constitution, in place of the Sacramental Test; while a government grant of some provision secured the loyalty of both the Catholic and Noncomformist clergy. To conciliate the Anglican State Church, measures were added to strengthen its means of discipline and to increase the stipends of its poorer clergy. To insure harmony between the Episcopal clergy and the Irish people, a commutation of tithes was provided for.

Pitt's wise measure was too broad and statesmanlike to obtain the immediate assent of the Cabinet; and, before such assent could be procured, the scheme was communicated to King George III. through the treachery of the Lord Chancellor, Lord Loughborough. The king angrily declared to Dundas: "I count any man my personal enemy who proposes any such measure." Pitt replied to this outburst of royal wrath by submitting his whole project to His Majesty. The Prime Minister wrote to the king thus: "The political circumstances under which the exclusive laws originated, arising either from the conflicting power of hostile and nearly balanced sects, from the apprehension of a Popish queen as successor, a disputed succession and a foreign pretender, a division in Europe between Catholic and Protestant powers, are no longer applicable to the present state of things." But it was useless to argue with George III. In spite of the lawyers whom the king consulted, he considered himself bound by his Coronation Oath to maintain the religious tests; and his bigotry coincided too well with the religious hatred and political distrust of the Roman Catholics still entertained by the majority of the English people not to make his decision fatal to Pitt's beneficent measure.

But Pitt held firmly to the principle of his liberal measure, and resigned in February, 1801; whereupon Mr. Addington, Speaker of the House of Commons, a man as dull and bigoted as George III. himself, became Prime Minister. The war with the French Republic was ended by the Peace of Amiens, March 27, 1802, but was renewed in 1803, as we shall afterward see.

In 1803 Colonel Despard and others were executed in England for plotting against the government; and Robert Emmett was hanged in Dublin for an attempt at rebellion in Ireland, Lord Kilwarden and others having been killed by the insurgents. In India during 1803 the Mahrattas were defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterward Duke of Wellington, at Assayé and Argaum; while General Lake took Delhi and Agra by storm; whereupon the Mahrattas ceded large territories to the East India Company.

SECTION XI.—THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

LOUIS XV. had at first secured the esteem of the French people to such an extent that he was surnamed *the Well-beloved.* When he was taken seriously ill at Metz, in 1744, the whole kingdom was filled with sorrow; and his recovery was hailed with transports of joy. But Louis soon lost the affections of his subjects when he plunged into the most excessive vices and riotous debauchery, and left the government of his kingdom to the most profligate and licentious favorites, such as Madames Pompadour and Du Barri. Of these favorites, Madame Pompadour possessed the greatest influence at court. For twenty years she controlled the affairs of France, procured the appointment of her favorites to the most responsible offices, used the public revenues for her own private purposes, and determined when the nation should be at peace or war. The favorites of the king encouraged his debauchery, so that he would leave the affairs of state entirely in their hands. As the king grew older his licentiousness increased, so that at length he lost all respect and was regarded with contempt.

The voluptuousness and extravagance of the French court, and the unnecessary and expensive wars with the other European states, exhausted the French treasury, increased the public debt, and burdened the French people with the most oppressive taxes. The taxes were all paid by the middle and lower classes, while the nobility and the clergy were exempt from all taxation. In addition to the land and property tax, capitation tax, house tax, and duties upon certain articles, the lower classes had to pay tithes, labor dues, and other feudal taxes to the aristocracy.

Although the French nobility were a distinct class, an hereditary caste, and although all their descendants were noble and enjoyed the privileges and immunities inherited from birth, their number was an intolerable burden upon the country, although they possessed no political power since the days of Cardinal Richelieu. About this time the French nobility numbered almost one hundred and forty thousand Only persons of noble birth were eligible to high rank in the French army or to lucrative preferments in the Church; and, as all military and ecclesiastical promotion depended upon the king's pleasure, assiduous attendance at court was indispensable for the ambitious who desired active service, and for the indolent who wished for honors or sinecures. The habit of court or military life tended to further separate the French nobility from their countrymen, upon whom they looked down with the pride of privileged rank and with the arrogance frequently attaching to military command. But with all their privileges and immunities, the mode of life of the French nobility, and their contemptuous disregard of economy and business, were such that most of them were poor, many being reduced to absolute indigence.

All laws and decrees respecting taxation, in order to be valid, required registration by the Parliament of Paris. Whenever the Parliament refused to register or sanction the tax laws and decrees, it became involved in a vehement dispute with the court, which generally ended in a *Bed of Justice*, by which the king overcame all opposition and carried his point.

Another cause of strife between the court and the Parliament were *the lettres de cachet*, written orders bearing the seal of the king, banishing the person to whom they were addressed, or ordering him to be confined in prison. This power was greatly abused. Any person hating another could easily gratify his malice by obtaining, for a certain sum of money, a *lettre de cachet* from the ruling favorite of the king, consigning the innocent victim to a lonely dungeon, from which death, in the majority of cases, was

the only release. The only check on the absolute power of the king was the Parliament of Paris. After a ten years' contention with the Parliament, Louis put an end to the matter by causing the most refractory members to be arrested; and, by a series of edicts, he deprived the Parliaments of all their privileges.

The profligate Louis XV. died in 1774, sighing: "*Après moi le déluge*," "After me the deluge." He was succeeded on the throne of France by his grandson, Louis XVI., who was then only twenty years of age. Louis XVI. was a pious prince, and sincerely anxious for the good of the people over whom he reigned; but he lacked the ability and firmness necessary for the circumstances by which he was surrounded. The extravagance and wickedness of the court of Louis XV. had reduced France to a most deplorable condition. The finances of the kingdom were in a disordered state, the public credit was gone, and the great body of the French people were groaning under the most oppressive taxation. The weak king permitted the extravagance and frivolousness of his brothers, the Count of Provence, afterward Louis XVIII., and the Count of Artois, afterward Charles X. He also allowed his wife, Marie Antoinette, the daughter of the great Austrian empress-queen, Maria The-

resa, to exercise great influence upon the court and government of France. The pride and the haughty conduct of the queen provoked the dislike of the French people, who attributed every unpopular measure to her influence in the affairs of state.

Louis XVI. was a good, dull monarch—earnestly desiring to reform the evils of the state, but knowing as little how as did that princess of his family who, upon being told that thousands of peasants were starving to death for want of bread, exclaimed: "Poor things! If there is no bread why do you not give them cake?"

The prevalent scarcity of money and the disordered state of the public finances of France could only be remedied by wise reforms, such as were proposed by Turgot, whom the young king first entrusted with the charge of the finances. But Turgot's measures of economy were bitterly opposed by the extravagant courtiers, and the able Minister of Finance was obliged to resign his office.

Necker, a wealthy Swiss banker, was next appointed to take charge of the French finances. By pursuing the same course which his predecessor had adopted, and exposing the financial state of France in a pamphlet, Necker made himself so obnoxious to the French court and aristocracy that he also was obliged to retire from his post, A. D. 1781.

About this time the War of the American Revolution, in which France took part as ally of the Americans, increased the public debt of France, and excited sentiments of freedom and republicanism among the French people. Such of the French soldiers as served in America carried to France the republican spirit which they had imbibed from their American allies, and imparted to their countrymen the lessons of freedom which they had learned. The writings of Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau and the Encyclopedists had made the French people discontented with existing institutions; and, in connection with the establishment of a democratic republic in North America, led to the mighty upheaval which convulsed France and all Europe in this reign.

The vain and extravagant Calonne, who, through the influence of the queen, was now appointed Minister of Finance, adopted a policy just the reverse of that which had been pursued by the economical Necker. He continued the system of loans long after the termination of the American war, and delighted the queen and the courtiers by giving the most extravagant entertainments; but his resources were at length exhausted, and he saw no other remedy than the taxation of the nobility and the clergy of France. For the purpose of securing the adoption of this course, he called an Assembly of Notables at Versailles in 1787. After a long struggle, the project of universal taxation was defeated; and Calonne, threatened with impeachment, resigned his office and retired from the country.

Calonne's successor as Minister of Finance was Brienne, who found himself obliged to follow the usual method of raising loans and increasing the taxes, in order to cover the deficit in the revenue; but in this he met with the most determined opposition from the Parliament of Paris, which refused to register his edicts. The government then arrested the boldest speakers of the Parliament, and banished them to Troyes. This proceeding aroused such a storm of indignation among the French people that the government effected a compromise with the banished members, who were again recalled; and the Parliaments were again sanctioned.

The French people openly manifested their opposition to the court party. The Parliament of Paris was surrounded by noisy multitudes, which denounced the court party, and showed their approval of the course of the opposition members. Brienne, who had incurred the hatred of the people, was daily burned in effigy; and in many towns in the kingdom alarming riots occurred. The people demanded the convocation of the States-General. The government made an effort to put an end to all opposition by changing the Parliament into a *cour pleniere*, "plenary court," and several subordinate courts.

But the effort to overcome the opposition of the people was useless; and Brienne found himself obliged to resign his situation at a time when the French treasury was destitute of funds, and the French government appeared on the eve of bankruptcy.

That great idol of the French people, Necker, was now recalled to the management of the finances of France. His restoration was hailed with acclamations of joy, and confidence was again restored. Necker procured the repeal of the edicts against the Parliament of Paris, and then made arrangements for the assembling of the States-General, an assembly composed of representatives chosen by the Three Estates—the nobility, the clergy and the people—which had not met since 1614. A Convention of Notables was first assembled to decide on the preliminaries necessary to the convocation of the States-General. The people demanded, and Necker maintained, that the representatives of the people, *Tiers Etat*, "Third Estate," in the coming meeting of the States-General, should equal the number of representatives of the other two Estates taken together. This double representation, after much deliberation, was conceded; and the king fixed the number of representatives at three hundred for the nobles, three hundred for the clergy and six hundred for the people. The king appointed the ensuing May as the time for the meeting of the States-General.

The States-General assembled at Versailles on the 5th of May, 1789. Some of the ablest and most distinguished men of France were among its members. At the opening of this great assembly a difficulty arose as to how the representatives of the Three Estates should vote. The clergy and the nobility demanded that the three orders should meet in three separate bodies, while the people insisted that the Three Estates should meet in one body. If they met in separate bodies, every measure, in order to become a law, must receive the approval of two of the Estates voting separately. It would, therefore, be an easy matter for the clergy and the nobles, whose interests were almost identical, to unite for the purpose of defeating measures for the elevation of the people. On the other hand, if they met in one body, the people, on account of their double representation, would be able to manage everything their own way.

After waiting some weeks for the nobility and the clergy to join them, the deputies of the Third Estate, on the 17th of June, 1789, declared themselves the *National Assembly* of France, being, as they maintained, the representatives of the great body of the French people. Its ablest members were the Count de Mirabeau and the Abbé Sieyès. The astronomer Bailly, the representative of Paris and a great advocate of popular freedom, was chosen president of the Assembly, which was then joined by a part of the representation of the clergy and the nobles.

The National Assembly immediately voted that the present levy of taxes should only continue so long as the Estates remained undissolved, and that they should cease entirely in case of a dissolution of the Estates. This boldness of the Assembly alarmed the court, under whose influence the king appointed a *Royal Session*, and closed the hall of the Assembly for several days. When, on the 20th of June (1789), the members of the Assembly found the halls closed, they proceeded to the Tennis Court, where they made a solemn vow not to separate until they had framed a constitution for the French nation. When, on the 22d of June, the court caused the Tennis Court to be closed, the members of the Assembly proceeded to the Church of St. Louis, where they held their meeting. The Royal Session took place on the 23d of June. The king granted some concessions, but threatened vengeance upon the National Assembly unless the Three Estates met in three distinct bodies. After the close of the Royal Session the king dissolved the Assembly. The nobility and the clergy obeyed, and immediately withdrew from the hall, but the deputies of the people kept their seats; and when the king's officer,

the Marquis de Breze, ordered them to withdraw, the Count de Mirabeau arose from his seat and exclaimed: "You, sir, have no seat, nor a right to open your lips here. You are not to remind us of the king's desire. Go, tell your master that we sit here by the power of the people of France, and that we will only be driven away at the point of the bayonet." The Ablé Sieyès then addressd the Assembly in these words: "You are to-day what you were yesterday. Let us enter on our deliberations." The weak monarch did not attempt to force the refractory deputies to obey, but a few days afterward he advised the nobles and the clergy to unite with the representatives of the people.

While the National Assembly was engaged in forming a constitution for the French kingdom, the populace of Paris were kept in a constant state of excitement by licentious journals, pamphlets and inflammatory speeches. Unprincipled demagogues delivered violent discourses upon the rights of man, in the streets, in taverns, and particularly in the Palais Royal, the residence of the dissolute Duke of Orleans, the cousin of the king. The people were encouraged to obtain their rights by violence. Among the popular orators was the young enthusiast for popular liberty, Camille Desmoulins. The military in the capital joined the popular side, and became members of the *National Guard*, a new body of militia, which the people had just organized. The city government of Paris was placed in the

THE BASTILE.

hands of the democrats, with Bailly as Mayor. A revolutionary spirit prevailed among the people of the capital, and Paris was slumbering over a volcano which was ready to burst forth at any moment.

The French court, becoming alarmed at the excited state of the populace of Paris, retired to Versailles with a small guard composed of German and Swiss troops. The leaders of the people, thinking that the king intended some act of violence, took advantage of the removal of the court to inflame the people of Paris still more. The irresolute king now listened to the indiscreet counsels of his courtiers and nobles, and a large army under Marshal Broglio was collected between Versailles and the capital. This, instead of intimidating the people, only inflamed their rage. At the same time Necker, whom the people greatly esteemed, was dismissed from the Ministry. The populace of Paris, thinking this preliminary to an intended act of violence on the part of the court, rose as one man. Crowds of the lowest rabble, wearing the newly adopted national cockade, or *tricolor*, consisting of red, white and blue ribbon, marched through the streets of the city; the alarum bell was sounded; the gunsmiths' shops were broken open and plundered; and the whole city was filled with riot and confusion.

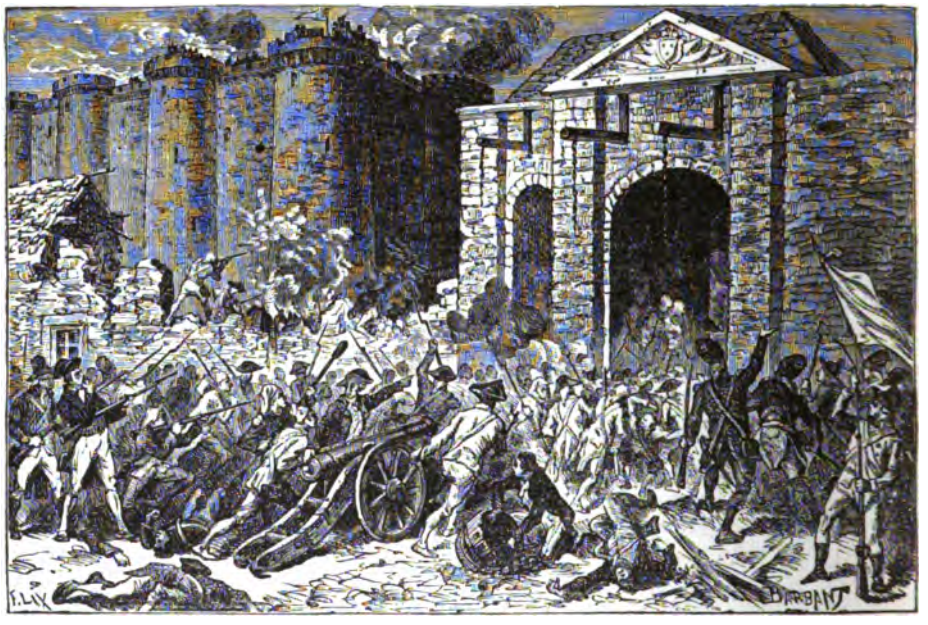
On the 14th of July, 1789, the populace of Paris, after obtaining thirty thousand stand of arms and some cannon from the Hôtel des Invalides, proceeded against the Bastile, an old castle used as a state prison. The governor, Delaunay, was induced by the garrison in the Bastile to remove the cannon from the fortress, as they only served to increase the fury of the populace. Soon afterward a deputation from the Commune of Paris, headed by the popular leaders, appeared, and demanded an entrance into the Bastile for the purpose of conferring with the governor. The drawbridge was lowered for the admission of the deputation; but when the mob rushed forward and demanded arms the drawbridge was closed, and the garrison, by order of the governor, fired upon the multitude. The cries of the wounded and the dying filled the people with ungovernable rage, and they commenced storming the Bastile with fury. The garrison still resisted the advance of their assailants, who, being soon joined by a body of grenadiers, redoubled the vigor of the assault. The governor and the garrison, in despair, at length surrendered; and the populace were completely triumphant. The governor was torn in pieces by the enraged mob while on his way to the Hôtel de Ville, and his head was carried on a pole through the streets of Paris. This was the beginning of the great *French Revolution*.

The storming and capture of the Bastile by the mob of Paris struck the king and the aristocrats with consternation. The National Assembly at Versailles was violently agitated by the news from Paris, and some member proposed to send a deputation to the king to urge him to remove the troops from the city; but Clermont Tonnere said: "No, let us have them this night to take counsel. It is well that kings, like private men, should learn by experience." The Duke de Laincourt informed the king that the Bastile was taken by the mob, that Paris was in insurrection, that the guards were siding with the mob, and that the regiments of the line were sullen and inactive. After a long silence, the king said: "This is an insurrection." The Duke de Laincourt replied: "No, sire, it is a revolution."

The universal defection of the troops rendered resistance hopeless, and Louis XVI. had no other alternative than submission to the triumphant populace. The banished Necker was immediately recalled to the Ministry, and was received with enthusiastic joy by the people. The king returned to Paris, gave orders for the removal of the troops, appeared before the people with the tricolor in his hat, and declared himself united with the nation. Bailly, as Mayor of Paris, presented the keys of the city to the king, saying: "Sire, these are the keys that were offered to Henry IV., the conqueror of his people. To-day it is the

people who have reconquered their king." Lafayette, who had fought so nobly for freedom in America, was appointed commander of the National Guard.

The consequences of the capture of the Bastile were that the authority of the government and the laws throughout France was at an end. All power was in the hands of the people. The peasants of the provinces no longer paid their dues to the clergy and the nobility, but they took a terrible revenge for the tyranny which they and their ancestors had suffered for centuries. Many of the nobles were murdered or driven away, and their chateaux were reduced to ashes. Many thousands of the nobility and aristocracy—with the Count of Artois and Princes of Condé and Polignac at their head—fled from France, for which reason they were called *Emigrants*.

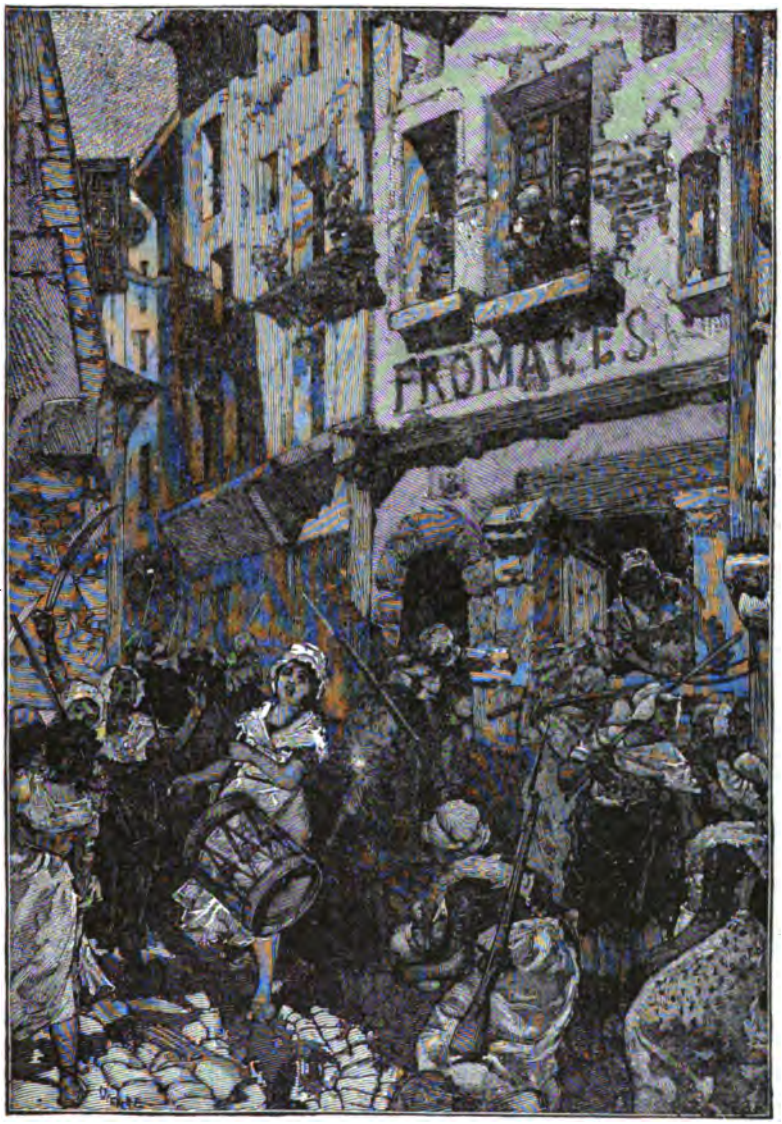


STORMING THE BASTILE.

When informed of the proceedings in the provinces, the National Assembly declared that the aristocracy should show by their conduct that they were ready to ameliorate the condition of the masses of the French people, and, with this view, renounce all their exclusive privileges and titles. In one sudden burst of enthusiasm, the nobles and the clergy consented to surrender all their privileges and titles. Each of the privileged classes seemed to vie with the other in showing its willingness to make the greatest sacrifices for the welfare of the people. In one excited session, in the evening of the 4th of August, 1789, the National Assembly abolished serfdom, with all tithes, labor dues, all exclusive privileges and all titles and distinctions of rank in France, and declared the equality of all classes before the law and with respect to taxation. A medal was struck representing Louis XVI. as the restorer of French liberty, and the king himself presided at a Te Deum to celebrate the happy event. The Assembly published a *Declaration of the Rights of Man*, which, on motion of Lafayette, included the right to resist oppression. By degrees, all vestiges of the Feudal System were swept away; trial by jury and religious freedom were established; the Church was deprived of all her possessions; and the whole political condition of France was changed. Every Frenchman was granted the right to vote for representatives in the Assembly. France was divided into eighty-three *Departments*, or *Prefectures*, which were divided,

subdivided and resubdivided into *Arrondissements, Cantons and Communes.*

The hesitation of the king in promulgating the resolutions of the Assembly as laws produced suspicions among the French people of his sincerity. These suspicions gained

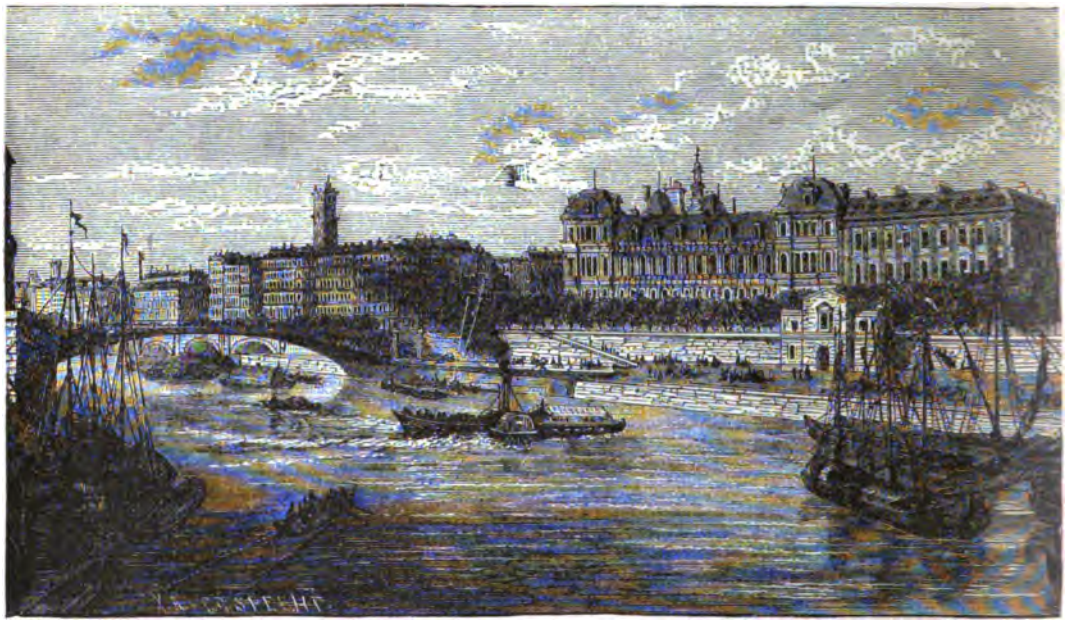


THE BREAD RIOT.

ground when the Flemish regiment was summoned to Versailles, and the king, the queen and the Dauphin were imprudent enough to appear at a dinner given by the soldiers of the body-guard to the officers of the regiment, when several royalist toasts were drunk, and many of the officers, mostly young nobles, under the influence of wine, made imprudent speeches against the privileges and liberties which had just been acquired by the people. An exaggerated account of these proceedings was spread through Paris, and the people feared that an attempt would be made to restore the former despotism.

During the months of August and September, 1789, the National Assembly was diligently engaged in the task of framing a

new national constitution for France, and the municipality of Paris was occupied in procuring bread for the lower classes of the populace; while the latter, imagining that the Revolution was to liberate them from almost every kind of restraint, were rioting in the exercise of their newly-acquired freedom. Near the end of August the famine had become so great in Paris that mobs became frequent in the streets, and the bakers' shops were surrounded by multitudes clamoring for food and shouting "bread," while the most extravagant reports were circulated through the city charging the scarcity upon the royal court and the aristocrats. This was the time of the famous "bread riots."



THE TUILERIES.

In the meantime the popular leaders were instigating the populace of Paris to demand that the king and the National Assembly should remove from Versailles to the capital; and on the 5th of October (1789) a multitude of the lowest refuse of the people, mostly women, armed with pikes, clubs and forks, left Paris and proceeded to Versailles. The mob demanded that the king and the Assembly should return to Paris, and cried for a relief from the scarcity of bread. During the night the mob stormed the palace, and massacred many of the king's guards who defended it. The angry rioters even broke into the queen's bedchamber and pointed their bayonets at her bed. The terrified queen fled half-dressed to the king's apartment. Had it not been for the timely arrival of Lafayette with the National Guard the whole royal family would have been sacrificed to the fury of the mob. On the following day the king and his family were obliged to accompany the mob to Paris and to take up their abode in the Tuileries, which henceforth remained their palace and prison. Soon afterward the National Assembly transferred its sittings from Versailles to the capital.

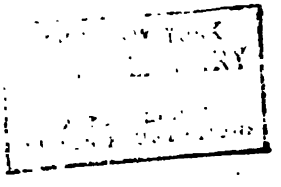
The lower classes in France gradually acquired more power, and were kept in a constant state of excitement against the royal family and the aristocrats by inflammatory speeches from the popular leaders. The infamous Marat, in his licentious journal, *Ami du Peuple*, "The Friend of the People," encouraged the people to acts of violence. The Revolution was also aided by the democratic clubs, which increased every day in extent and influence. Of these, the *Jacobin* club, which had branches in every town in

HUSSAR—INFANTRYMAN.

GENERAL (1795)—LIGHT INFANTRY OFFICER (1795)—INFANTRY OF THE LINE (1795).

COSTUME OF CITIZEN (1796).

FRENCH GENERALS (1799-1800).



France, was the most celebrated and the most powerful. The members of this club wore a red cap, and were satisfied with nothing less than a pure democratic republic with liberty and equality for all classes. Another democratic club was that of the *Cordeliers*, which had such violent Revolutionists as Danton and Camille Desmoulins among its leaders. The *Constitutional* club, which favored a constitutional monarchy, and to which Lafayette belonged, declined in importance daily.

On July 14, 1790—the anniversary of the destruction of the Bastile—a grand ceremony, known as the *Fête of the Federation*, took place in the Champ de Mars, in Paris, at which the utmost enthusiasm and good feeling was manifested by all classes and all persons. The king, the members of the National Assembly, and Lafayette in the name of the National Guard, took an oath to support the new constitution which the Assembly was engaged in framing.

Necker had already retired to Switzerland; and the Count de Mirabeau, who had at first been one of the most enthusiastic supporters of the Revolution, now joined the cause of the king, believing a constitutional monarchy, and not a republic, to be the best form of government for France. He now exerted himself to his utmost to prevent any encroachment on the authority of the king; but, unfortunately for Louis XVI., Mirabeau died in April, 1791; and the timid and irresolute king was no longer able to resist the increasing influence of the Jacobins. A short time before his death, Mirabeau said: "Before long neither the king nor the National Assembly will rule, but a wild faction will overspread the land with its horrors." Mirabeau had been a man of conservative views and loose principles, and of most licentious and corrupt morals, having squandered his fortune by his dissipation and profligacy.

The refusal of the king to declare the Emigrants traitors led to a prevalent belief among the French people that he was not a true supporter of the constitution then framing. This belief excited the fears of the king, and he resolved upon leaving the country. Leaving behind him a letter in which he protested against all the measures which had been forced from him since October, 1789, he fled with his family from Paris in a large carriage, in June, 1791; but did not succeed in escaping from the kingdom. Imprudently putting his head out of the window of the carriage, Louis was recognized by Drouet, the postmaster of St. Menehould, who immediately rode off to Varennes to give the alarm. When the royal family arrived at Varennes the road was barricaded, and the carriage was soon surrounded by a tumultuous mob. At this moment a party of soldiers rode up to the carriage, and asked Louis if they should force a passage for him through the crowd. The king asked if it would cost many lives, and, being told that it probably would, forbade the attempt and surrendered himself a prisoner. The royal family were conducted in triumph to Paris by an insolent mob, and again compelled to resume their residence in the palace of the Tuileries.

The National Assembly, in obedience to the demands of the French people, temporarily suspended the royal authority until the king should swear to the new constitution, which was now almost completed. On the 14th of September, 1791, Louis XVI. took an oath to defend the constitution against internal and external enemies, and to enforce its provisions to the best of his ability. After the adoption of the constitution, the National Assembly passed an ordinance declaring that none of its members should be elected to the next Assembly, and then declared itself dissolved.

The elections for representatives in the new Assembly, called *the Legislative Assembly*, had resulted in a complete success of the republicans. The royalists had exercised no influence in the elections whatever. The Assembly was thoroughly democratic. The *French Legislative Assembly* —which convened at Paris, October 1, 1791 —was divided between three parties. The *Feuillants*, or Constitutionalists, then an insignificant party, upheld the constitution

and the monarchy. The moderate republicans—called *Girondists*, because their leading orators were from Bordeaux and the Department of the Gironde—comprised the best men in the Assembly, such as Brissot, Roland, Barbaroux, Condorcet, Vergniaud, Dumouriez and others. This party was opposed to unnecessary bloodshed, and in favor of a federal republic like the United States. The violent republicans, or Jacobins—called the *Mountain*, because they occupied the highest seats in the Assembly—were controlled by the Jacobin and Cordeliers clubs, whose chiefs were Robespierre, Marat, Danton, Camille Desmoulins, St. Just, Couthon, Duke Philip of Orleans and others. These Red Republicans, or bloodthirsty Revolutionists, were anarchists, and were upheld by the Paris Commune and the Paris mob.

The first measures of the French Legislative Assembly were directed against the priests who refused to take the Revolutionary oath, and against the Emigrants, who had gathered at Coblentz and were making every effort to stir up foreign powers to make war on France for the purpose of effecting the restoration of the former despotism. The Assembly took measures for the arrest of the unsworn priests, and declared the Emigrants to be traitors and conspirators, and endeavored to effect the confiscation of their estates. These measures were vetoed by the king, and their execution was thus prevented. This excited the indignation of the French people, who believed that the royal family were plotting with the Emigrants and with Leopold II. of Austria, Emperor of Germany, the brother of the queen, for the overthrow of the new system and for the reëstablishment of the old state of things in France.

From the beginning of the Revolution the crowned heads of Europe had looked with alarm upon the rising tide of republicanism in France; and Edmund Burke, the great Irish-English statesman, had done all in his power to excite a European crusade against this mighty disturbance of the social and political institutions which Europe had received from mediæval and feudal times. As the British Parliament and the Ministry of the younger William Pitt were deaf to his appeals, he appealed to England and to Europe through his pen by publishing his *Reflections on the French Revolution* in October, 1790, as already noticed. We have also seen that he sent his son to join the army of the Emigrants at Coblentz, and that he wrote to them: "Be alarmists; diffuse terror."

It was now evident that a foreign war must soon break out. The Emperor Leopold II. of Germany, and such Bourbon kings as Charles IV. of Spain and Ferdinand IV. of Naples, were moved by ties of kindred to protect the royal family of France. The Empress Catharine the Great of Russia hastened to end her second war with Turkey in order to further her designs against Poland by embroiling Austria and Prussia in the rescue of the French monarchy from the menacing hands of the Revolutionists of Paris.

The divided jurisdiction of the border provinces between France and Germany demanded immediate action on the part of the Emperor Leopold II. and the German Imperial Diet. By the famous Act of August 4, 1789, several German princes had been deprived of their feudal claims in Franche-Comté, Alsace and Lorraine; while the Archbishop-Electors of Treves and Mayence had lost their spiritual rights over the cities of Spires, Strasburg, Metz, Toul and Verdun.

The Emperor Leopold II. of Germany and King Frederick William II. of Prussia at their conference at Pilnitz, in Saxony, in August, 1791, united in a demand that the French should reform their government upon the plan proposed by their king in June, 1789, and appealed to the other European powers to join them in an effort to reëstablish Louis XVI. in his former authority. Accordingly Austria, Prussia, Spain and Sardinia assembled troops to suppress the Revolution in France; but England hesitated, as the peaceful Mr. Pitt was unwilling to interfere in the internal affairs

of France until he was forced to do so as an act of self-defense, and he was supported by the Tories, while the Whigs followed Mr. Fox in his applause of the French Revolution, so that Mr. Burke was left alone in his anti-Revolutionary sentiment.

The Count of Provence, a brother of King Louis XVI., having fled from France, assumed the command of the Emigrant forces at Coblentz, where he established a little court, which became the headquarters of these refugee French nobles. The movements of the Coalition were delayed by the death of the Emperor Leopold II. of Germany and the assassination of King Gustavus III. of Sweden, both of which occurred in March, 1792.

The French people were exasperated that foreign powers should dictate to them what form of government they should have, and they resolved never to submit to such insolence. The ablest men of the Legislative Assembly—which was inferior in talent to the National Assembly—were in the Girondist party, which gained the ascendency upon the first hostile movement of Austria and Prussia.

The preparations of Austria and Prussia to interfere in the affairs of France, and Austria's ultimatum demanding the restoration of the former despotism in France, caused the French Legislative Assembly to declare war, April 20, 1792. King Louis XVI., unable to resist the will of the Assembly and the people of France, accepted a Girondist Ministry headed by Roland, and with tears yielded his assent to the declaration of war against the sovereign who had armed in his behalf—his own nephew, Francis II. of Austria, who had succeeded his father Leopold II. as King of Hungary and Bohemia, and who was afterward also elected Emperor of Germany.

The confiscations of ecclesiastical and royal property had filled the treasury of the Assembly; and three French armies—commanded respectively by Lafayette, Rochambeau and Luckner—were sent to guard the northern and eastern frontiers of France. Rochambeau's army, forty-eight thousand strong, held the line from Dunkirk to Philippeville; Lafayette's force, numbering fifty-two thousand men, occupied the line from Philippeville to Lauterbourg; and Luckner's forty-two thousand troops were stationed in the district between Lauterbourg and Basle. The French military operations were unsuccessful, and two strong French detachments were routed by the Austrians near Lille and Valenciennes.

The Girondists were now obliged to make additional bids for the support of the mob by decreeing the banishment of the priests who refused to take the Revolutionary oath, the dismissal of the royal guards, and the formation of a "federal army" to be encamped near Paris. Lafayette, who was disgusted and alarmed by these movements, wrote to the Legislative Assembly from his camp on the northern frontier, demanding the suppression of the Jacobin faction and its clubs; but his efforts only hastened the catastrophe which he sought to prevent.

To secure the Legislative Assembly against any attack, it was determined to call twenty thousand of the federates from the northern provinces of France to Paris, with the professed object of celebrating the capture of the Bastile and to entrust the defense of Paris to them. But Louis XVI. refused his approval of this measure; whereupon the Girondist Ministers, with Roland at their head, resigned their offices, June 13, 1792; and Madame Roland severely censured the king in a letter. These proceedings excited the frenzy of the French people, and enabled the Revolutionists to bring about an insurrection. On the 20th of June, the anniversary of the Tennis Court, a furious mob, armed with scythes, clubs, axes, forks and pikes, and headed by the brewer Santerre and the butcher Legendre, entered the Tuileries for the purpose of compelling the king to approve of the decrees against the unsworn priests and for calling out the National Guard. For several hours the king bore the insults of the mob, who even went so far as to take off his diadem and put the red cap of the Jacobins on his head, until the appearance of the

National Guard under Pétion freed him from danger.

The plots of the Emigrants and the Austro-Prussian invasion of France caused the Assembly to declare the country in danger; and, in response to the call of the Jacobin leaders—Robespierre, Danton and Marat—the "federal army" mustered throughout France. The vilest wretches, many of them ex-convicts, hastened to Paris, singing the Revolutionary song just written by Rouget de l' Isle, and named the *Marseillaise*, because it was published at Marseilles.

The following is an English translation of the *Marseillaise:*

"Ye sons of France, awake to glory!
Hark, hark, what myriads bid you rise!
Your children, wives and grandsires hoary,
Behold their tears and hear their cries.
Shall hateful tyrants, mischief breeding,
With hireling hosts, a ruffian band,
Affright and desolate the land,
While peace and liberty lie bleeding?

CHORUS.

"To arms, to arms, ye brave!
Th' avenging sword unsheath.
March on, march on, all hearts resolved
On liberty or death!

"Now, now the dangerous storm is rolling,
Which treacherous kings confederate raise.
The dogs of war, let loose, are howling,
And lo! our fields and cities blaze.
And shall we basely view the ruin,
While lawless Force, with guilty stride,
Spreads desolation far and wide,
With crime and blood his hands imbruing?

"With luxury and pride surrounded,
The vile, infatuate despots dare—
Their thirst of gold and power unbounded,
To mete and vend the light and air.
Like beasts of burden would they load us—
Like tyrants bid their slaves adore;
But man is man, and who is more?
Nor shall they longer lash and goad us.

"O Liberty! can man resign thee,
Once having felt thy generous flame?
Can dungeons, bolts and bars confine thee,
Or whips thy noble spirit tame?
Too long the world has wept, bewailing
That falsehood's dagger tyrants wield;
But freedom is our sword and shield,
And all their arts are unavailing!"

Near the close of July, 1792, an Austro-Prussian army of one hundred and forty thousand men, commanded by Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, the celebrated commander of the English and Hanoverian forces in the Seven Years' War, passed the eastern frontier of France and marched into Lorraine. Before advancing into France, the Duke of Brunswick, at the proposal of one of the Emigrants, had issued an insolent proclamation demanding that the French submit to their lawful sovereign, threatening to lay Paris in ashes if the royal family were harmed, and promising to obtain a free pardon from their sovereign for their rebellious conduct if they submitted. The insolent tone of this proclamation tended to inflame the mad fury of the Revolutionists in Paris, and excited in the French people the fiercest rage against the Emigrants and their foreign allies.

Such Jacobin leaders as Robespierre, Marat, Danton and Camille Desmoulins harangued the Parisian populace and inflamed their rage. These demagogues called to Paris from Marseilles, Brest and other French maritime towns the very dregs of society, and resolved upon a general insurrection in the capital. On August 3d (1792) the Sections of Paris, headed by Pétion, proceeded to the Assembly and demanded the instant dethronement of Louis XVI. The federal volunteers made the same demand on the 6th (August, 1792). The Assembly hesitated, and finally resolved by a large majority not to arrest the king or bring him to trial. This action of the Assembly so infuriated the Sections that they resolved to take the matter in their own hands, and after they had secured the municipal government of Paris they proceeded to execute their purpose.

Before daylight on the 10th of August (1792) a frantic mob led by Danton appeared before the Tuileries, which was defended by nine hundred Swiss guards and the Parisian National Guard. The mob pointed their cannon toward the palace; and the National Guard, unwilling to fire upon the multitude, dispersed. The mob, gradu-

STORMING OF THE TUILERIES, AUGUST 10, 1792.

ally becoming bolder, finally demanded the dethronement of the king. Hereupon the king and his family fled to the hall of the Assembly, where they remained for thirty-six hours. No sooner had the king left the Tuileries than the mob pressed forward and endeavored to force an entrance into the palace; whereupon the Swiss guards fired upon the multitude, who were driven back with a loss of two hundred men. The indignant Assembly, hearing the fire of musketry, required the king to order his guards to cease firing upon the people. No sooner was the order carried into execution than the infuriated mob stormed the palace, massacred without mercy all whom they found in it, and destroyed the furniture. About five thousand persons, seven hundred of whom were Swiss guards, fell victims to the rage of the mob.

The bloody event of the 10th of August was the death-blow to the monarchy in France. In the meantime the Legislative Assembly, at the demand of the triumphant mob, and at the proposal of Vergniaud, the president of that body suspended the royal authority, and issued a call for the assembling of a National Convention on the 22d of September, 1792. On August 13 (1792) the king and his family were imprisoned in the temple, a gloomy old building, which had once belonged to the Knights-Templars; and the Paris Commune virtually ruled France. After the king had been deprived of his authority, the assembly appointed a new Ministry with the Girondist Roland at its head. The frightful Danton held the office of Minister of Justice. The Ministry and the Common Council of Paris, which appointed pikemen to the police of the capital, managed everything their own way.

A *Committee of Safety* under the presidency of Marat was established, which inaugurated an infamous system of espionage and domiciliary visitation for the purpose of detecting conspiracies against the state. A *Revolutionary Tribunal* of nine judges was created to try persons accused of conspiracy against the state, and it was governed by martial law, while its decisions were final.

Lafayette, who had hastened to Paris after the insurrection of June for the purpose of saving the king, if possible, was now ordered to appear before the Assembly to answer for his conduct. Rightly believing that the Jacobins were resolved upon his destruction, Lafayette fled into the Austrian Netherlands with the intention of escaping to America; but he was seized by the Austrians, who kept him a prisoner for five years in the dungeons of Magdeburg and Olmütz. Talleyrand fled to England, and thence to America, where he remained until the sanguinary period of the Revolution was over, when he returned to his native country.

The capture of Longwy and Verdun by the Prussians infuriated the Parisians. Danton declared it necessary to crush all opposition by striking terror into the Royalists at home, and three thousand persons were arrested and imprisoned in one night, August 30, 1792. It had been determined from the first to put these prisoners to death; and at three o'clock in the morning of September 2 (1792) the tocsin was sounded; whereupon three hundred hired assassins, under the direction of Marat, Danton and Robespierre, broke open the prisons and commenced a frightful massacre of the unfortunate inmates. Twenty-four priests who refused to take the Revolutionary oath were cut to pieces. During the massacres, the assassins, stained with blood, established courts for the trial of their victims; and the fate of each was decided in the course of a few minutes.

By these five days' September massacres (September 2–7, 1792) about three thousand persons were massacred in the different prisons of Paris; women, children, paupers and lunatics being slaughtered for no other conceivable reason than a thirst for blood. The *Reign of Terror* had fairly begun; and the *guillotine*, an instrument for beheading, named in derision after Dr. Guillotin, a member of the Legislative Assembly, was set up beneath the windows of the king's prison. Among its first victims was the Princess de Lamballe, the friend of Queen

Marie Antoinette. A band of pikemen held the head of the murdered princess upon a pole before the window of the queen, who fell into frightful convulsions at the horrid spectacle. The same bloody scenes were enacted at Meaux, Rheims, Lyons and Orleans. The monarchy in France was now completely overthrown, and the French Legislative Assembly ended its sittings on the 20th of September, 1792.

THE GUILLOTINE.

The French Legislative Assembly was succeeded by a National Convention, which assembled at Paris on the 22d of September, 1792. On the very first day of its meeting, the Convention decreed that royalty was abolished in France, and a Republic was proclaimed. The Convention also enacted that time, instead of being reckoned from the birth of Christ, should thereafter be reckoned from the 22d of September, 1792, the birthday of the French Republic. All titles were abolished, and men were to be called *citizen* and women *citizeness*. The Convention also condemned the Emigrants to perpetual banishment, and threatened them with death if they returned to France or were taken in arms. One of the members of the Convention was Thomas Paine, who had come to France to aid the Revolution, as he had before gone to help the establishment of liberty in America, and who had written a work entitled the *Rights of Man* in support of the French Revolution, thus replying to Edmund Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution*.

Although the Girondists and the Mountain had united in the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of the French Republic, the most bitter feeling was now manifested between these two Revolutionary parties. The National Convention, having been elected by universal suffrage, was composed almost exclusively of members belonging to one or the other of these republican parties. The Girondists, who were the more moderate or conservative party, were superior to their opponents in numbers and in ability.

The Mountain, or Jacobin party, exerted greater influence through the audacity of its members and the support of the Paris Commune and the Paris mob. After overthrowing existing institutions, the Jacobins sought to found a new system of *Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité*, "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity." Acting upon the principle that "he who is not for us is against us," this extreme party sought to crush all opposition by violence and bloodshed. The party of the Mountain soon obtained the mastery through its strength in the Jacobin clubs and the wild bands of *Sans-Culottes*, who were kept in a constant state of excitement by such Revolutionary songs as the *Marseillaise* and the *Ca ira*, by Revolution festivals, Trees of Liberty, etc.

On the 20th of September, 1792, the Prussian army which had advanced into Champagne was defeated by the French under Dumouriez and Kellerman in the battle of Valmy. After this battle the Prussians agreed to evacuate the French territories, and retreated to the Rhine. The French army under Custine then advanced into Germany to the Rhine and captured Treves, Spires and Mayence. The French Assembly declared war against King Victor Amadeus III. of Sardinia, September 10, 1792. General Montesquieu invaded Savoy, and General Anselm occupied Nice. The French

Republic afterward declared these provinces annexed to its territory.

Meanwhile the Austrians who had invaded France from the Austrian Netherlands were also obliged to retreat, and were pursued by the French army under Dumouriez across the frontier into the Austrian Netherlands. On the 6th of November, 1792, Dumouriez won a decisive victory over the Austrians in the battle of Jemappes, which gave the French possession of the Austrian Netherlands, and in which the French stormed the Austrian intrenchments to the chant of the *Marseillaise*. The French soldiers fought for liberty, the allied troops for pay.

The French victory of Jemappes was largely due to the revolutionary spirit of the people of the Austrian Netherlands, who under French influence immediately renounced their allegiance to the House of Hapsburg and again proclaimed the Belgian Republic.

Amid the excitement occasioned by the victories of Dumouriez, the National Convention resolved that every French general should proclaim the sovereignty of the people and the overthrow of monarchy in any county that he should invade, and that he should treat as enemies any people who should refuse *Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité*. In violation of the Treaties of Münster and Fontainebleau, the National Convention declared the Scheldt open, and French warships forced a passage up that river to bombard Antwerp. The French Republic thus asserted itself the arbiter of international law, even ignoring treaties confirmed by previous French governments.

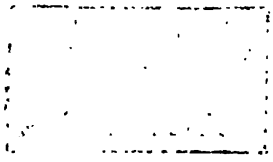
One great design of the Jacobins was to take away the life of "Louis Capet," as the king was now called. They accused him of conspiracy against the French Republic and of a treasonable correspondence with foreign powers. An iron safe had been found in a wall in the Tuileries, containing secret letters and documents, thus showing that the French court had not only been in alliance with Austria and with the Emigrants, and had planned the overthrow of the Constitution that Louis XVI. had sworn to observe, but that it had also endeavored to win the support of members of the National Assembly by bribery, by pensions and by other means. The discussion on the king's trial began November 13, 1792.

After a long and fierce discussion between the Mountain and the Gironde, the National Convention decreed that "Louis Capet" should be brought before the Convention for trial; and the accusation against him was read December 10, 1792. The main charges were that he had instigated foreign powers to invade France, that he had caused the capture of Longwy and Verdun by the Prussians by his neglect of the army, and that he had provoked the insurrection of the 10th of August for the purpose of sacrificing the lives of his subjects.

The king's dethronement when the Republic was proclaimed by the National Convention should have barred all the accusations against him; but this was not a time for legal technicalities or calm judgment to have any weight, when France was in the throes of the mightiest revolution that the world had ever seen. Robespierre appealed to the popular will. Said he: "What have not the friends of liberty to fear when they see the ax unsteady in your grasp and detect a regret for your past fetters, even after your emancipation?"

The Jacobins were themselves convinced of the illegality of their proceedings against the king. In demanding his death, Robespierre and the orator St. Just relied solely on reasons of state. Said Robespierre: "There is no trial contemplated. Louis is not accused. You are not his judges. You are and can only be statesmen. You have not to pronounce a sentence for or against a man; but you have a measure of public safety to adopt—an act of national care to undertake. A dethroned king in a republic can only do two things. Either he troubles the tranquillity of the state and endangers its liberty, or he adds security to both. Louis was king. The republic is founded. The great question which occupies you is decided in these few words: Louis is not to

PLACE DE LA CONCORDE, PARIS.



be tried. He has been tried already. He is condemned, or the Republic is not absolute."

When Louis XVI. was brought before the bar of the National Convention as a criminal, December 10, 1792, he asked for counsel; and, when one whom he had selected declined through fear, the venerable Malesherbes volunteered his services, and Deseze and Tronchet also assisted in the king's defense. Said Malesherbes: "I have been twice called to assist at his council-table when such a summons was an object of ambition to every one. I owe him the same service now that it is a function that many persons would consider dangerous." The king's defense was conducted with great skill and ability by his counsel—Deseze, Tronchet and Malesherbes—after which a long and earnest discussion arose. Robespierre said: "The last proof of devotion which we owe to our country is to stifle in our hearts every sentiment of sensibility."

After a trial of twenty days the unfortunate monarch was declared guilty by an almost unanimous vote of the Convention. The Girondists rightly endeavored to have the question of the king's punishment referred to the French people; but the Jacobins prevented it, and caused a resolution to be passed by the Convention declaring that a bare majority, and not a two-thirds vote, should be necessary for the condemnation of the king. The Convention next proceeded to prescribe the mode of the king's punishment. The savage mob surrounding the Convention heaped menaces upon all who dared to be merciful, thus frightening the Girondists who desired to save the king's life. The voting lasted ten days; and each deputy rose as his name was called, and voted for death, exile or imprisonment. Finally, on January 20, 1793, Vergniaud, the president of the Convention, with a voice of emotion, announced the result, which was that the National Convention by a bare majority of twenty-six out of seven hundred and twenty-one votes sentenced "Louis Capet" to death within twenty-four hours.

Among those who voted for the king's death was his own cousin, Philip, Duke of Orleans, a dissolute character, who had taken an active part in the Revolution as a Jacobin leader, and who had assumed the title of Philippe *Egalité*, "Equality." Thomas Paine voted against the king's death, as did the Girondists generally, but they were unable to overrule the fiery Jacobins.

Louis requested the attendance of the Abbé Edgeworth to administer the offices of religion to him in his last moments—a request which was granted. He was also granted a last interview with his family, from whom he had been separated for some time; but the keepers required that the meeting should take place in a hall with a glass door giving a view of the interior. The king entered the apartment at eight in the evening of January 20, 1793. A door opened at half past eight, when his wife Marie Antoinette, his sister Elizabeth and his two children entered, casting themselves into his arms with sobs. After a long and sad interview, Louis arose, and, after a most heart-rendering farewell, departed.

Toward midnight the king slept soundly, and did so until five in the morning of the fatal day, when the Abbé Edgeworth administered the Sacrament to him. At eight o'clock in the morning, January 21, 1793, the brewer Santerre arrived to take the king to the place of execution. The king entered the carriage with the officers; and the sad procession moved between two lines of soldiers guarding the streets, and arrived at the place of execution in the Place de la Revolution at half past ten o'clock, January 21, 1793. The procession had moved in silence, no signs of approbation or regret being noticeable.

Louis XVI. left the carriage and ascended the scaffold with a firm step. Looking around at the vast multitude, he exclaimed: "Frenchmen, I die innocent; I forgive my enemies!" He was prevented from saying more by the noise of the drums which the brewer Santerre ordered to be beaten for the purpose of drowning his voice. Three executioners then seized hold of the king and

LOUIS XVI. TAKING LEAVE OF HIS FAMILY BEFORE HIS EXECUTION.

tied his hands. The king then laid his head upon the block, and the Abbé Edgeworth exclaimed: "Son of St. Louis, ascend to heaven!" Down came the axe of the guillotine, and the head that had worn a crown was severed from the body. The executioner holding aloft the king's bloody, dissevered head, exclaimed: "Vive la Republique!" Most of the spectators wept at the sad spectacle. His body, without being put into a coffin, was laid in a plain grave; and quicklime was spread over it to hasten the decomposition. Thus perished one of the kindliest and most virtuous monarchs that ever wore a crown. The memory of his infamous regicides will ever be held in execration by an impartial posterity.

Louis XVI. was in the thirty-ninth year of his age and the nineteenth of his reign when brought to so ill-fated an end. His brother, the Count of Provence, then in exile from his native land, declared himself regent for the unfortunate king's little son, the Dauphin, whom the royalists recognized as Louis XVII., and who was still imprisoned in the Temple.

The execution of Louis XVI. aroused a feeling of horror and indignation throughout Europe, and was regarded by the crowned heads of Europe as a general menace to all the monarchies of the world. The French were looked upon as anarchists and as the common enemies of mankind. The National Convention, intoxicated with the victories of General Dumouriez, had issued a proclamation offering the aid of the French Republic to all nations that would overthrow their monarchical governments and establish republican forms in their stead; the Convention's president, Vergniaud, having declared: "All governments are our enemies; all peoples are our allies."

In this crisis of peril to the established monarchical, aristocratic and ecclesiastical institutions of Europe, the other European governments made common cause. Early in 1793 almost all the crowned heads of Europe formed a coalition against the French Republic. The French ambassadors were ordered to leave the various European courts, and French citizens residing or traveling in the various European countries were arrested or expelled.

The National Convention did not wait to be attacked, but, resolving to anticipate the designs of the enemies of the French Republic by taking the first step, declared war against the *rulers* of England, Holland and Spain, in February, 1793, thus implying that the people of those countries had a different interest from that of their rulers. It was clearly understood on both sides that this was to be a life-and-death struggle between royalty and republicanism in Europe, and the National Convention ordered a levy of half a million men for the impending conflict.

The First Coalition against Revolutionary France embraced England, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Austria, Prussia, the German Empire and the Italian states. England, under her illustrious Prime Minister, the second William Pitt, kept in power by the Tories, headed the European Coalition, and furnished her Continental allies with large subsidies. After many vain efforts to preserve peace, Pitt had been forced into the war against the French Republic by the aggressive action of the French themselves and by the public sentiment in England which Edmund Burke had created by voice and pen against the French Revolution—a result which led Burke to separate himself from his old political and personal friend, Charles James Fox, the leader of the liberal Whigs.

The confiscated wealth of Church and State provided the French Republic with greater wealth than even Louis XIV. had at his command. The war thus commenced continued almost without intermission for a period of over twenty years, and taxed the energies of Europe more severely than any other struggle recorded in history. But when the conflict began each party underrated the resources of the other, and Mr. Pitt expected to see the war ended in a campaign or two.

Upon the capture of Mayence by the French under General Custine, October 21,

1792, the French garrison had been welcomed with enthusiasm by the inhabitants, who had been deserted by their Archbishop-Elector, their clergy and nobility, before the capture of the city; and a powerful republican party in Mayence, under the leadership of George Foster, an English circumnavigator of the globe, advocated the principles of liberty and equality proclaimed by the French Republic. In March, 1793, the Prussians recaptured Mayence, which only surrendered after a long and obstinate defense, during which the garrison and the inhabitants endured the horrors of famine. The triumphant Prussians again approached the French frontiers; as did the English, Dutch, Austrians, Hanoverians and other German troops.

After the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands, General Dumouriez had made great efforts to save the king's life, to defeat the Jacobins and to restore the constitutional monarchy. During the debate in the National Convention on the fate of Louis XVI., Dumouriez returned to Paris and exerted himself actively to prevent the king's execution. Seeing the hopelessness of these efforts, he returned to his army, invaded Holland and seized Breda, Klundert and Gertruydenberg. He was followed by Jacobin spies.

An Austrian army under the Prince of Coburg, assisted by Clairfait and the Archduke Charles, defeated the French army under Dumouriez in the battle of Neerwinden, March 18, 1793. Dumouriez ascribed this defeat to the Jacobins, whom he accused of having corrupted the army. Disgusted with the violence of the Jacobins, he entered into a treaty with the Austrian commanders for the overthrow of the French Republic and the reëstablishment of the constitutional monarchy in France with the Duke de Chartres, afterward King Louis Philippe, the eldest son of the infamous Philip Egalité, Duke of Orleans, as king.

The Jacobin spies in Dumouriez's army transmitted the news of his treasonable proceedings to Paris, and the National Convention impeached him and sent four commissioners into his camp to arrest him and bring him to Paris; but Dumouriez seized the commissioners of the Convention and delivered them as prisoners to the Austrians. He then appealed to his army to follow him in a march upon Paris to rescue France from the tyranny of the National Convention; but his troops deserted him, and he fled to the Austrian camp for refuge. He was never permitted to return to France.

In the meantime, while France was threatened on all her frontiers with foreign enemies, the deadly strife between the Mountain and the Gironde was fast bringing matters to a crisis. On March 10, 1793, a new *Revolutionary Tribunal* was established, consisting of twelve jurymen and five judges, to decide without appeal the fate of all persons accused of crimes against "liberty, equality and the indivisibility of the Republic." On May 27, 1793, a *Committee of Public Safety* was established, consisting of nine members and invested with dictatorial powers.

The Mountain made use of Dumouriez's treachery to overthrow the Gironde, to which party Dumouriez had belonged. For the purpose of putting a stop to the violence of the mob in Paris and destroying the domination of the capital, the Girondists endeavored to erect France into a federal republic. The Jacobins seeing that this scheme, carried into effect, would weaken their power, violently opposed the project, and determined to prevent it by the destruction of the Girondist leaders. The Jacobins accused the Girondists of having an understanding with Dumouriez in his treason to the Republic, and reproached them with weakening the power of the French people and destroying the Republic at a time when France was menaced with internal and external foes. When the eloquence of the Girondists repelled the charges of the Jacobins, the savage Marat, in his violent journal, *Ami du Peuple*, "The Friend of the People," called upon the mob of Paris to rise against the moderate and the lukewarm, thus inciting daily riots and tumults in the capital, which menaced the life and prop-

erty of all moderate and reputable people.

The Girondists caused Marat to be arrested and brought before a court of justice for disturbing the public peace, but he was acquitted by the Jacobins and carried back to the Convention in triumph by the Paris mob. Through the efforts of the Gironde, the Convention appointed a Commission of Twelve to detect and punish those who had incited the riots and tumults. Hebert, the Procureur of the Paris Commune, in his vulgar and libellous journal, *Père Duchesne*, excited the populace to acts of violence and murder; whereupon he and some of his accomplices were imprisoned by order of the Commission of Twelve; but the raging mob compelled their release.

The great insurrections of May 31 and June 2, 1793, were brought about by Hebert and by the leading members of the National Convention—Marat, Danton and Robespierre. Headed by the infamous Henriot—who had been successively a laquay, a smuggler and spy of the police, and who was now made commander of the National Guard—a mob of eighty thousand Sans-Culottes surrounded the Tuileries, in which the National Convention was in session, and demanded with menaces the abolition of the Commission of Twelve and the exclusion of the Girondists and the moderates. The Girondists made vain efforts to prevent the Convention from complying with the demands of the raging mob. When the majority of the Convention, seeing themselves deprived of the freedom of their deliberations, attempted to retire from the hall, with their courageous president, Herault, at their head, they were forced back by the mob under Henriot, and compelled to comply with the demands of the San-Culottes and the Mountain and thus yield to mob violence.

Thereupon thirty-two Girondist deputies were seized and imprisoned, and seventy-three others were expelled from the Convention for protesting against the arrest and incarceration of their fellow-members. Twenty of those who were imprisoned—Pétion and Barbaroux among the number—escaped to Normandy and Brittany, as did many of those who had been expelled from the Convention. Proceeding to Caen, in Normandy, they placed themselves at the head of a counter-revolution which had already broke out in the West of France. These expelled Girondist deputies set up a rival government at Caen, raised an army under General Wimpffen, and opened communications with Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulon, Nismes, Montauban, and other cities in the South of France which had risen in arms against the National Convention and the Jacobin leaders.

Charlotte Corday, a young and beautiful heroine, went from Caen to Paris to avenge the fate of the Girondist leaders and to save the Republic by the assassination of Marat, whom she regarded as the author of the insurrection of May 31 and June 2. She was a young maiden of genius and exalted character and a warm partisan of the Gironde. Upon arriving at Paris, Charlotte Corday obtained admission to the house of Marat, and stabbed him to the heart. She made no attempt to escape, and was sentenced to death by the Revolutionary Tribunal. She met death by the guillotine bravely, and with the satisfaction of having performed what she considered a noble action. Said she: "I have killed one man to save a hundred thousand—a depraved wretch to save the innocent—a ferocious monster to procure peace to my country. I was a republican before the Revolution, and I never wanted energy."

But Marat became an object of greater enthusiasm and admiration to the Revolutionary multitude after his assassination than he had been during his lifetime. Blasphemous honors were paid to his memory; his name was invoked in the public squares; his bust was seen in all the popular assemblies; the National Convention was forced to grant him the honors of the Pantheon; and his heart, deposited in an agate vase, was placed on an altar, and surrounded with flowers and the smoke of incense.

After the expulsion of the Girondist deputies, the Girondist party in the National Convention was broken up, and the Conven-

tion was thereafter completely under the control of the sanguinary party of the Mountain with Robespierre and Danton at their head, so that nothing was for a time able to withstand their violence. France felt the terrible consequences of the victory of the Jacobins, and thereafter there seemed no hope for the unhappy country.

While the French National Convention was engaged in suppressing numerous insurrections against its authority and against the Revolutionary power, during the year 1793, the armies of almost all the other nations of Europe were in the field against the French Republic. English, Dutch and Austrian armies were on the northern frontier; Prussian, Austrian and German armies had crossed the Rhine on the east; the Sardinians threatened France on the south-east; and the Spanish and the Portuguese forces occupied the Pyrenees on the south-west.

CHARLOTTE CORDAY.

Infuriated by an increase of the armies of the European Coalition against Revolutionary France, both upon the northern and southern frontiers of the Republic, and by the revolts in the West and South of France, the National Convention proceeded to the most vigorous measures. The district of La Vendée, the provinces of Brittany and Normandy, and the cities of Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulon, Nismes and Montauban, were all in revolt against the Convention; and at one time seventy out of the eighty-three Departments of France were in a state of insurrection; but the tremendous energy of the Paris Revolutionists finally broke the power of this formidable league.

The Convention ordered a levy *en-masse* of all the citizens of France to repel foreign invasion. Said Danton: "Let us respond to the call. It is by the sound of cannon that the constitution must be proclaimed to our foes. The time is come for that great and final vow by which we devote ourselves to death or the annihilation of tyrants!" After the vow had been taken, the orator Barrere, in the name of the Committee of Public Safety, proposed rigorous measures, which were adopted by the Convention. All the youth of France from the age of eighteen to twenty-five years took up arms, and ere long the Republic had fourteen armies amounting to twelve hundred thousand men.

Terror was brought into operation to provide for the maintenance and subsistence of these armies. The middle classes were overwhelmed by violent and multiplied requisitions, death being the penalty of resistance. The National Convention passed a *Law against the Suspected*, which destroyed the last vestige of personal security and placed the life of every person in France at the disposal of the Revolutionary populace and their bloodthirsty leaders.

The Committee of Public Safety was com-

posed of ten of the extreme leaders of the Mountain; Robespierre, Couthon, St. Just, Collot d'Herbois, Billand-Varennes, Barrere and Carnot being the most prominent members of the committee. The envious and malignant Robespierre, the bloodthirsty Couthon and the fanatical republican St. Just formed a terrible triumvirate in the very heart of the committee. Carnot took no active part in the proscriptions, but directed his genius to the management of the military affairs. The Revolutionary Tribunal, consisting of twelve jurymen and five judges, seconded the activity of the Committee of Public Safety by a cruel administration of justice; and that bloodhound, Fouquier Tinville, held the office of public accuser.

The National Convention was now nothing more than an assembly of executioners and assassins. To hoodwink and deceive the French people, the Convention submitted for their approval the plan of a constitution drawn up by Herault de Sechelles, June 24, 1793; according to which the Primary Assemblies of the people were to exercise the sovereignty and to deliberate on all legislative measures; but the whole power was in the hands of the Committee of Public Safety after the fall of the Girondists. For a time Danton and Camille Desmoulins, as chiefs of the Cordeliers club, had the most influence; but these men were soon supplanted by Robespierre, Couthon and St. Just, the chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety. The *Constitution of the Year I.*, adopted by the Convention on the 24th of June, 1793, had been ratified by the Primary Assemblies; but on August 28th of the same year Robespierre, as head of the Committee of Public Safety, decreed that it should be suspended, as the Republic was in a state of revolution until peace was restored.

During the *Reign of Terror*, in 1793–'94, unhappy France—torn by factions, rent by civil war, invaded by foreign enemies, threatened with famine, suffering from bankruptcy, cursed with atheism—presented a picture beyond our powers of description. The Committee of Public Safety, the Revolutionary Tribunal, the Paris Commune, the Revolutionary committees, the Jacobin clubs and the bloodthirsty Sans-Culottes, disposed of the lives of all who were opposed or indifferent to the cause of *Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité.* Royalists, Girondists, aristocrats, the wealthy, the refined, the educated, and all suspected persons, were in constant danger. The frightful Law against the Suspected was rigorously enforced against all "enemies of the country;" and two hundred thousand suspected persons were arrested throughout France and imprisoned, and led in crowds to the guillotine daily in Paris and in the other large cities of France. Thus while France became a camp for one portion of its people it became a prison for another portion.

The neglect of agriculture and the ruin of the public credit threatened to tear the unhappy country to pieces. Each needy person received forty sous per day for attending the assemblies of his Section. Certificates of citizenship were distributed, and each Section had its Revolutionary committees and its Sans-Culottes.

The guillotine was used as an incentive to patriotism, and the National Convention placed the alternative of victory or death before its generals. General Beauharnais was guillotined for his failure to arrive in time to prevent the recapture of Mayence by the Prussians. General Custine suffered the same fate for his retreat from the Rhine before the superior forces of the Austrians and Prussians and for his failure to prevent the capture of Valenciennes and Condé by the Austrians under Clairfait. General Houchard, who had defeated the English under the Duke of York at Hondtschoot, perished in the same manner for afterward retreating before the superior force of the enemy. General Biron was likewise guillotined for being defeated by the Vendean insurgents.

The ex-queen Marie Antoinette—"the Widow Capet," as the Jacobins called her—was brought to trial on charges which were false and malignant so far as they affected

her character. During her trial she displayed a firmness and strength of character worthy of her education and her high birth. She was led to the guillotine October 16, 1793, and died with heroism and resignation. Her son, the youthful Louis XVII., died beneath the cruel treatment of his Jacobin jailors. Her daughter, the Duchess of Angoulême, died with a broken heart.

The heroic Bailly, the old Mayor of Paris, died by the guillotine a few days after the queen. The twenty-one proscribed Girondists were guillotined October 31, 1793, and they advanced to death singing the *Marseillaise*. Those Girondist leaders who had escaped from Paris to the provinces were hunted to death with tiger-like ferocity. Madame Roland—who was looked upon as the soul of the Girondist party, and at whose house the Girondist leaders were accustomed to meeting—was also condemned to death; and on being led to the guillotine she exclaimed: "O, Liberty! what crimes are committed in thy name!" Her husband committed suicide on hearing the news of her execution. Pétion, Barbaroux, Condorcet and other Girondist leaders also died by their own hands. Thomas Paine, who had incurred the hatred of the Jacobins, was compelled to flee for his life.

The infamous Philippe Egalité, Duke of Orleans, who had been one of the most violent Jacobins, had incurred the wrath of the malignant Robespierre; and even Danton was unable to save him. He was accordingly led to the guillotine November 7, 1793, amid the execration of all parties. He also died bravely. Madame du Barri, the former mistress of Louis XV., experienced the same fate; as did also Barnave.

So frequent were the executions that death lost its terrors. The malicious slander of an enemy, the accusation of a spy, the hatred of a Sans-Culotte, were sufficient to bring an innocent person to prison, and from prison to the guillotine. All France seemed to be turned into a hell, and its Jacobin rulers into fiends. Amid this carnival of blood and terror women sat and knit without the least concern.

The National Convention abolished the Gregorian calendar and the names of the months and days; as it had already abolished the Christian era and made the new era date from the 22d of September, 1792, the birthday of the French Republic. The year was divided into twelve months of thirty days each. The remaining five days were called *sans-culottides*, and were consecrated to genius, to labor, to actions, etc.

Infidelity and atheism reigned supreme. The National Convention abolished the Sabbath, and the leaders of the Paris Commune declared that they intended "to dethrone the King of Heaven as well as the monarchs of the earth." Finally, November 10, 1793, the leaders of the Paris Commune—Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro and the Prussian Anacharsis Clootz—prevailed upon the National Convention to decree the abolition of the Christian religion in France and the substitution of the worship of Reason instead. Momoro's young and beautiful but prostitute wife, who had been a dancer, personated the Goddess of Reason; and as such she was enthroned on the high altar of the Cathedral of Notre Dame and worshiped by the members of the National Convention and the Paris Commune.

Gobel, the constitutional Bishop of Paris, and several other ecclesiastics were compelled publicly to apostatize from Roman Catholic Christianity and to accept the new worship of Reason. While the Cathedral of Notre Dame was thus profaned by being converted into a temple of atheism, the other Catholic churches were plundered and subjected to every kind of sacrilege, and the mass vestments and church ornaments and implements were carried through the streets in blasphemous processions. Over all the public cemeteries was placed the inscription: "Death is an eternal sleep." The tombs of the French kings at St. Denis were violated, and the remains of the dead monarchs were cast into a common ditch, so that the people might forget every vestige of royalty. Such were the crowning acts of that Reign of Terror which cost the lives of more than a million Frenchmen.

While the most shocking excesses were perpetrated by the French republicans, and while the armies of almost all the other European nations were on the French frontiers, the royalists and Girondists had risen in trict of La Vendée, in the West of France, was the seat of a bloody civil war.

In their primitive simplicity and rural quietude, the inhabitants of La Vendée, who had preserved their feudal customs and pre-

THE FÊTE OF REASON.

various parts of France to oppose the National Convention, the Jacobin clubs, the Revolutionary committees and the bloodthirsty Sans-Culottes. The beautiful dis- judices, and who had always been firmly attached to their king and their landlords, their clergy and church usages, had opposed the Revolution from the beginning, and

were intensely enraged by the banishment or murder of their unsworn priests and by their king's cruel death by the guillotine. Finally, when the National Convention ordered a levy *en masse* to repel foreign invasion, the peasants of La Vendée flew to arms against the Republic; and, under such brave leaders as the wagoner Cathelineau, the gamekeeper Stofflet, the naval officer Charette, and the nobles Larochejacquelin, D'Elbée and Bonchamps, they entered the field in the royalist cause.

The Vendeans defeated the troops of the line and the National Guard which marched against them, overthrowing the republican generals in succession simply by their passionate bravery. They raised three armies of from ten to twelve thousand men each—the Army of Anjou, under Bonchamps, on the banks of the Loire; the Grand Army of the Centre, under D'Elbée; aud the Army of the Marsh, under Charette, occupying Lower Vendée.

By June, 1793, the Vendeans had possession of Bressuire, Argenton and Thouars. Forty thousand of their troops won a brilliant victory at Saumur, on the south bank of the Loire, in the old province of Anjou, capturing eighty pieces of cannon, ten thousand muskets and eleven thousand prisoners, June 9, 1793; but they were repulsed in their attack on Nantes, where their brave leader, Cathelineau, was mortally wounded, June 29, 1793. They then fell back beyond the Loire, and defeated in succession the republican armies under Biron, Rossignol and Canclaux, whom they drove back with heavy loss.

Thereupon the National Convention sent an army of two hundred thousand men into La Vendée under Westermann and such frantic Jacobins as Ronsin and Rossignol; but the republican forces were defeated in detail—seventeen thousand men of the old French garrison of Mayence, under the command of Kleber, being defeated near Torfou; and before the close of September the republican forces were driven out of La Vendée.

The National Convention again made the most vigorous exertions to suppress the Vendean insurrection. The republican forces under Westermann, Beysser, L'Echelle, Kleber, Marceau, Ronsin and Rossignol overran La Vendée and ravaged the district with fire and sword, sparing neither age nor sex. Towns, villages and woods were set on fire by the invaders, who sought to crush the Vendeans by terror and outrage. Kleber's veterans finally overcame the Vendean insurgents, who were beaten four times at Chatillon and Cholet, where their principal leaders were wounded.

Surrounded on every side by their triumphant enemies, the heroic Vendeans appealed for aid to the English, who demanded, as a preliminary to sending relief, that the Vendeans should possess themselves of some seaport. Thereupon a hundred thousand Vendeans, including old men, women and children, crossed the Loire into Brittany, October 17–19, 1793, and marched toward Granville with the hope of obtaining supplies from England.

On the very day that the orator Barrere announced in the National Convention that "the war is ended and La Vendée is no more," the Vendeans defeated the republican troops at Chateau Gontier with a loss of twelve thousand men and nineteen pieces of cannon. This republican disaster caused intense consternation in Paris, as nothing remained to prevent the victorious Vendean royalists from advancing on the capital.

After their great victory the Vendeans proceeded to the coast and laid siege to Granville, but were repulsed from that seaport by their want of artillery and were compelled to retreat with heavy loss. They were routed at Mans, December 10, 1793, and were entirely destroyed in an effort to recross the Loire at Savenay, December 22, 1793, where they fought with unyielding valor to the very last, slowly melting away in the midst of their foes. Out of the hundred thousand Vendeans who crossed the Loire into Brittany, scarcely three thousand returned to La Vendée; and most of these were captured by their pursuers, or perished on the scaffold.

Charette continued his resistance to the republican forces; but the island of Noirmoutiers was taken from him, January 2, 1794, the brave D'Elbée being there taken prisoner. Charette was afterward defeated at Machecoult, and the valiant Larochejacquelin was assassinated.

La Vendée was reduced to submission for the time, and a system of extermination was commenced against the vanquished inhabitants. General Thureau surrounded the conquered province with sixteen intrenched camps and twelve movable columns known as the *infernal columns*, and traversed the country with fire and sword. The National Convention had in the meantime assigned the work of vengeance to a wretch named Carrier, whose drownings of Vendeans at Nantes were so constant that the waters of the Loire became poisoned, thus rendering the fish unfit for food; and no less than fifteen thousand persons perished by his orders during the last three months of 1793.

The troops of the National Convention were also engaged in suppressing other frightful insurrections against the Reign of Terror. The inhabitants of Brittany and Normandy had arisen in support of the unfortunate Girondist leaders, but were soon subdued by the Convention's troops, who filled that beautiful region with slaughter and desolation; and, under the direction of Lebon, the guillotine had its thousands of victims at Caen and other places in the North of France.

The royalist and Girondist insurrections in the South of France had their centers at Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles and Toulon. Bordeaux was speedily reduced to submission, August 25, 1793; and, under the direction of Tallien, the guillotine did its frightful executions in that beautiful city. General Carteaux suppressed the revolt in Marseilles, and the most frightful executions followed there also.

The revolt at Lyons was caused by the conduct of Chalier, who had formerly been a priest, and who was then president of the Jacobin club of that city. He excited the populace of Lyons by scandalous placards to plunder and destroy the "aristocrats." This instigation to violence exasperated the wealthy and respectable people of Lyons, and they caused the demagogue to be executed, July 16, 1793. This deed aroused the fury of the terrorists at Paris, and the enraged National Convention soon surrounded Lyons with a powerful army under Kellerman. The royalists and Girondists of Lyons defended their city to the last extremity. After a vigorous siege of several months, Lyons surrendered to the besieging republican army of sixty thousand men under Doppet, Kellerman's successor, October 9, 1793. The conquered city suffered a terrible punishment for its revolt.

The orator Barrere prevailed upon the National Convention to issue an anathema against Lyons. In this speech Barrere said that the name of Lyons ought to be blotted out, that the city should be called *Commune Affranchie*, and that a monument should be erected upon the ruins of the rebellious city to commemorate the crime and punishment of the enemies of liberty, with the inscription: "Lyons made war on liberty. Lyons is no more." The bloodhounds Frèron, Fouché, Couthon and Collot d'Herbois, who were intrusted by the National Convention with the execution of its decrees against Lyons, caused the finest buildings of the beautiful city to be utterly demolished, and caused the inhabitants to be mown down in crowds with grape and canister in the public squares. During the five months after the surrender of the city, over six thousand of the people of Lyons were guillotined, and more than twelve thousand were exiled.

The royalists of Toulon proclaimed Louis XVII., August 29, 1793, and were assisted in their defense by the English and Spanish fleets under Admirals Hood and Langara, which had been cruising off their coast when the revolt broke out. The city was soon besieged by the republican army under General Carteaux. Confident in the aid of their English and Spanish allies, and in the strength of their walls, the royalists of Toulon bade defiance to the republican troops.

But the army of Sans-Culottes which besieged the city overcame all resistance.

The artillery of the republican army besieging Toulon was directed by the young Corsican Napoleon Bonaparte, who now for the first time exhibited his great military talents. This youth was the son of Charles Bonaparte, a lawyer of Ajaccio, in Corsica, and was born in 1769, the very year in which Corsica came into the possession of France. He was educated at the military school at Brienne, in France, and was a young lieutenant of artillery when the struggle between Revolutionary France and the crowned heads of Europe broke out. By the exertions of this young Corsican officer, a fort commanding the harbor of Toulon was taken, thus rendering the town untenable; whereupon the English and Spanish fleets speedily evacuated the city, taking with them over fourteen thousand of the unfortunate inhabitants, December 20, 1793; and the republican army under General Carteaux took Toulon by storm, December 24, 1793. Toulon also suffered a frightful punishment from Frèron, who caused all the wealthy citizens to be shot, and divided their property among the Sans-Culottes.

While the French National Convention was thus successful in suppressing the numerous insurrections against its authority during the year 1793, the armies of the French Republic, under the command of its new Jacobin generals, who had beeen appointed to supersede the Girondist commanders, were everywhere triumphant over the foreign invaders of France. This improvement of the military fortunes of the Republic was the result of the unity and system given to the French military operations after the brave and active Carnot had taken his seat in the Committee of Public Safety. All France was interested in the war by the levy *en masse*, and the newly-acquired freedom awakened courage and enthusiasm among the French troops. The fanatical bands of French troops were now opposed to their allied foes in masses, and no longer in small divisions; while the greatest commanders of the century rose from the French ranks. The allied generals, with their antiquated tactics and with soldiers who fought for pay, could not maintain their ground against fanatical republican troops who fought for liberty and native land.

On the northern frontier the French army under General Jourdan, the guillotined Houchard's successor, defeated the Austrians under the Prince of Coburg at Wattignies, thus compelling the Austrian force under General Clairfait to raise the siege of Maubeuge. On the Rhine the Prussians, after recapturing Mayence, July 22, 1793, and defeating the French army under Moreau at Pirmasens, September 14, 1793, failed in the siege of Landau. An allied Austrian, Prussian and German imperial army of eighty thousand men under Wurmser and Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick forced the lines at Weissemburg, October 13, 1793, and marched into Alsace as far as Strasburg, but were driven back by the French army of the Moselle under Generals Hoche and Pichegru. The French army of the Alps under Kellerman was also successful against the Sardinians. On the side of the Pyrenees the Spanish forces under Ricardos and Ventura-Caro gained several advantages; Ricardos taking Bellegarde, Collioure and Port Vendre. Thus the campaign of 1793 ended in the general success of the French arms against the numerous forces of the allies, and the invasion of France on all sides was defeated; while the numerous insurrections against the Revolutionary power were suppressed.

The Revolutionary terrorists were divided into three parties. The Committee of Public Safety, at the head of which stood Robespierre, Couthon and St. Just, supported by the Jacobin club, constituted the "party of justice," and governed with absolute power. The Paris commune, headed by Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro and the Prussian Anacharsis Clootz, formed a second party, consisting of the most ultra-Revolutionists and violent anarchists, who desired still greater excesses of profanation and destruction.

Danton and Camille Desmoulins, the chiefs of the Cordeliers, headed the "party of clemency," which now became disgusted with the rage and cruelty of the Jacobins, and desired to end the Reign of Terror.

Danton was more of a voluptuary than a tyrant, and was capable of generous feelings. Having grown weary of slaughter, he had retired into the country for a few months with a young wife, to enjoy the wealth and happiness which he had acquired through the Revolution. But Camille Desmoulins, in his widely circulated and much read journal, *The Old Cordelier*, applied the passages in which the Roman historian Tacitus describes the tyranny and cruelty of the Emperor Tiberius to his own times with such appropriateness that there could be no mistake as to its application to the three chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety and the laws against the suspected. This enraged the Jacobins, headed by Robespierre; and, as several of Danton's partisans—Fabre d'-Eglantine, Chabot and others—were at this time guilty of deceit and corruption in connection with the abolition of the French East India Company, the Committee of Public Safety, headed by Robespierre, resolved upon the destruction of the whole party of the Dantonists, who were now the "party of clemency."

Before destroying the Dantonists, whom he denounced as lukewarm in the cause of liberty, Robespierre determined upon the annihilation of the faction of the Commune, whom he reproached as anarchists and atheists. In order to effect the overthrow of the Commune, Robespierre and his partisans entered into a temporary alliance with the "party of clemency" headed by Danton and Camille Desmoulins.

When Danton had resumed his seat in the National Convention, St. Just began a violent struggle by a remarkable declaration in which he divided the enemies of the Republic into three classes—the corrupt, the ultra-revolutionary and the moderates—and insisted upon their punishment. This action resulted in bringing Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro, Clootz, Ronsin and the other anarchist chiefs of the Commune—nineteen in number—to the guillotine, March 24, 1794.

One week after the execution of the ultra-Revolutionists of the Commune, "the corrupt" were placed before the Revolutionary Tribunal, March 31, 1794; and Danton, Camille Desmoulins, Herault de Sechelles and their partisans were maliciously distinguished as such, and their doom was sealed. But Danton and Camille Desmoulins, supported by a raging mob, vehemently demanded that their accusers should be confronted with them. Danton's voice of thunder and the tumult among the populace prevented his condemnation for three days, and for the first time the bloody monsters of the Revolutionary Tribunal became embarrassed. At length the National Convention summarily gave the Revolutionary Tribunal the power to condemn, without any further hearing, the accused who sought to subvert the Revolutionary power by means of an insurrection. Thereupon Danton, Camille Desmoulins and twelve of their adherents in the National Convention were led to the guillotine, April 5, 1794. They died with courage and resolution. On being dragged to execution, Danton exclaimed: "I drag Robespierre! Robespierre follows me!"

For the next four months the Committee of Public Safety, headed by Robespierre, ruled with the most absolute sway, and the Revolutionary excesses of the Reign of Terror increased throughout France. For some time no voice was raised against the decemvirs composing that terrible Revolutionary committee, and the National Convention decreed that terror and all the virtues were the order of the day. During those four terrible months the power of the Revolutionary committees, the Jacobin clubs and the Sans-Culottes was exercised without restraint; and death became the sole instrument of government.

During this hideous period the Proconsuls Carrier, Lebon and Maignet distinguished themselves by unheard-of atrocities in the provinces—the first at Nantes, the second

at Arras, and the third in Orange. In Paris alone the guillotine had fourteen hundred victims during those bloody four months; among whom were the old Marshals de Noailles and de Maille, the Ministers Michaud and Laverdi, the famous mathematician and astronomer Lavoisier, the venerable Malesherbes and his family, D'Epremenil, Thouret and Chapelier, all members of the National or constituent Assembly which had met in 1789, and, finally, the Madame Elizabeth, the angelic sister of Louis XVI., who was guillotined May 10, 1794. Said Collot d'Herbois: "The more the body-social perspires the more healthy it becomes."

Robespierre and St. Just announced their intention to establish the reign of virtue, and associated Couthon with them; and this terrible triumvirate in the very heart of the Committee of Public Safety prepared for its own ruin by its very isolation. Robespierre was well aware that social order must rest on a religious foundation, and he was never an atheist. He accordingly caused a resolution to be passed by the National Convention, in May, 1794, declaring that the French nation recognized the existence of a Supreme Being and the immortality of the soul as truths. He afterward caused the Convention to dedicate festivals to the Supreme Being and to some of the virtues. As his followers considered him the founder of a moral democracy, he acquired supreme power; and he officiated as high-priest at the festival in honor of the Supreme Being, in the Tuileries, on the 20th Prairial, June 9, 1794, which was a day of perfect triumph for him. He marched at the head of the Convention, as its president, carrying flowers and ears of corn, and approached the altar, where he harangued the populace.

On the very next day—21st Prairial, June 10, 1794—Robespierre caused Couthon to propose an execrable law in the National Convention, refusing to accused persons the right to employ counsel, ordering them to be tried in mass instead of singly, and prescribing to juries no other law than that of their consciences. The Convention passed this monstrous law; yet Fouquier Tinville, the public accuser, and his associates, the judges belonging to the Revolutionary Tribunal, were unable to keep pace with the number of the proscribed. Fifty persons were sent to the guillotine daily in Paris alone. The scaffold was removed to the Faubourg St. Antoine, and a sewer was constructed to receive and carry off the blood of the victims.

The campaign of 1794 had commenced under this system. The Austrians under the Prince of Coburg had marched against the towns on the Somme; and General Pichegru with the French army of the North, numbering fifty thousand men, had planned the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands. He marched into Flanders, supported on the right by General Moreau; while the French army of the Moselle under General Jourdan advanced toward Charleroi to effect a junction with Pichegru's army. The Austrians abandoned their position in great alarm, and Pichegru defeated the English and Dutch under the Duke of York and the Austrians under Clairfait at Courtrai and at Hooglede; while Jourdan defeated the Austrians under the Prince of Coburg in the great battle of Fleurus, June 26, 1794. Thereupon the towns in the Austrian Netherlands surrendered to the French, who thus effected the conquest of those possessions of the House of Hapsburg, and gained possession of the frontier fortresses of Holland by the fall of 1794. In the meantime the French army of the Pyrenees under General Dugommier gained a brilliant victory over the Spaniards under General La Union at Ceret, April 30, 1794, and retook Bellegarde.

After the reduction of Toulon by the republican army, the English fleet under Admiral Hood was invited to Corsica by Pascal Paoli, and on June 18, 1794, took possession of that island, which submitted to Great Britain as an independent kingdom. The British fleet under Lord Howe defeated the French fleet under Admiral Villaret Joyeuse off Ushant, on the western coast of

COSTUME OF FRENCH CITIZEN (1790-1792).

MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNE (1793-1794).

DEPUTY FROM THE COUNCIL OF 500—GALA COSTUME OF THE MEMBERS OF THE DIRECTORY (1794-1799).

HUSSAR (1795)—CAVALRYMAN OF THE LINE (1795) —INFANTRY (1796).

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

France, June 1, 1794. Most of the French possessions in the West Indies had already been conquered by the English.

The triumvirate in the Committee of Public Safety had already lost the confidence of the populace and of the National Convention. The remaining Dantonists were on the lookout for a favorable moment of attack; and Robespierre increased the number of his enemies, and made himself ridiculous, by his proceedings at the festival in honor of the Supreme Being on the 20th Prairial.

Every life in France was at the mercy of Robespierre, who had caused fourteen hundred persons to be guillotined in less than seven weeks after he had gained absolute control of the Revolutionary Tribunal on the 21st Prairial, June 10, 1794. It was uncertain who were to be the next victims, and several of the most prominent terrorists resolved to bring the Reign of Terror to a close. Robespierre received intimations which alarmed him.

A secret proscription-list was discovered containing the names of some of the most prominent members of the National Convention—Tallien, Bourdon de l'Oise, Legendre, Collot d'Herbois, Billaud-Varennes, Barrere, Vadier, Frèron, Fouché, Voulant, Amar and others. As Robespierre had secretly determined on the destruction of these men they united for his overthrow and resolved to be beforehand with him. Tallien, the leader of the struggle against Robespierre, had been a prominent Jacobin, and had caused great numbers to be executed at Bordeaux after the suppression of the revolt there in 1793. He had been induced to desert the Jacobin cause by the fascinating Fontenay Cabarrus.

On the 9th Thermidor, July 27, 1794, a life-and-death struggle occurred in the National Convention. Robespierre had that day resolved to end the contest by the destruction of those whom he had proscribed. St. Just ascended the tribune, but was interrupted by Tallien and Billaud-Varennes, who began the struggle. Robespierre rushed forward to reply, but he and his adherents were not allowed to speak. His voice was drowned amid the cries of "Down with the tyrant" and the noise of the bell which the president of the Convention, Thuriot, rang incessantly.

Tallien denounced Robespierre as a usurper and a tyrant, as another Cromwell, and threatened to thrust a poniard into his heart. Tallien caused the Convention to pass a decree for the arrest of Henriot, the commander of the National Guard. He also caused the Convention to vote a declaration that its session was permanent. Barrere caused the Convention to place itself under the protection of the armed Sections. Said Tallien: "Now let us return to the tyrant!" He then denounced Robespierre more severely.

Robespierre made repeated efforts to speak, and ascended and descended the tribune; but his voice was always drowned by the cries of "Down with the tyrant" and the ringing of the president's bell. At length, in a moment of silence, he cried out: "President of assassins, will you allow me to speak?" The president's bell again sounded; whereupon Robespierre raved and stormed like a madman, flying from bench to bench, and appealing earnestly to the members of the right, who turned from him with loathing. Finally he sank back into his seat, perfectly exhausted with fatigue and foaming at the mouth. Said a member of the Mountain: "Wretch! the blood of Danton chokes thee."

Robespierre's arrest was then proposed. His brother and Lebas demanded to share his fate. The Convention accordingly ordered that the three chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety—Robespierre, St. Just and Couthon—and their confederate Henriot should be arrested and conveyed by the gens d'armes as prisoners to the Luxembourg Palace.

But this did not end the struggle. As the center of Robespierre's power was in the Jacobin club, he was secure in the support of the lower orders; while Fleuriot, the Mayor of Paris, and the Revolutionary Tribunal were his creatures. The Paris

Commune and the National Guard under Henriot were also devoted to him. The leaders of the Paris Commune proceeded to their assembly; and Henriot, before his arrest, traversed the street, sword in hand, shouting to arms. The Paris Commune and the National Guard accordingly armed in the defense of the arrested chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety.

In the evening the mob marched in a body to the Luxembourg Palace and released Robespierre, St. Just, Couthon and Henriot. Henriot instantly caused the National Guard to surround the Tuileries, where the Convention was in session, and to point their cannon toward the building. Terror reigned within the Convention, but the members of that body were inspired with courage by their imminent danger.

The Convention outlawed Henriot. His cannoniers refused to fire, and fell back with him to the Hôtel de Ville. This retreat decided the issue of the contest. The Convention resumed the offensive, attacked the Commune, and outlawed the rebel leaders. General Barras was appointed commander-in-chief of the armed force of the Convention. The battalions of the Sections swore to defend the Convention, and filed in the chamber before it, animated by Frèron. Said Tallien to the chief of the civic force: "Set forward, lest the day appear before the heads of the conspirators are stricken off."

At midnight the Convention's armed bands marched against the Hôtel de Ville, whither the armed mob of the Paris Commune had borne Robespiere and his arrested companions in triumph, and where he now sat motionless and paralyzed by terror. Detachments of the National Guard, companies of cannoniers, squadrons of gens d'armes, and the armed mob of the Commune, were stationed in front of the Hôtel de Ville for the defense of Robespierre and his associates.

The Convention's troops marched with their cannon in silence, their courage sustained by the grandeur of their mission. Leonard Bourdon, who led the attack as assistant to General Barras, caused the Convention's decree of outlawry against Robespierre and his confederates to be read to their armed supporters, most of whom then deserted to the forces of the Convention. Bourdon still hesitated to advance; as a rumor had been circulated that the Hôtel de Ville had been undermined, and that Robespierre and his companions and followers in the building would blow it and themselves into the air rather than surrender.

In the meantime the utmost uproar prevailed in the Hôtel de Ville, whose occupants were distracted by irresolution and contradictory resolutions. Robespierre had never wielded a saber. St. Just had dishonored his. The drunken Henriot did not know what to do. The guards of the Commune, who had been accustomed to march to the perpetration of crimes, were stunned when they found themselves attacked. All seemed to expect death, without having sufficient energy to strive to avert it by securing victory.

Payen read to the conspirators the Convention's decree of outlawry, and artfully included the names of all those in the gallery who were applauding their proceedings. This ruse succeeded perfectly, and the noisy supporters of the condemned leaders made haste to put themselves beyond the reach of danger, thus clearing the galleries. Robespierre's partisans now received a melancholy proof of how thoroughly they were deserted.

Henriot descended the stairs in consternation to harangue his cannoniers, upon whose fidelity all then depended. But the Convention's sentence of outlawry had dispersed them all, and the place was thoroughly deserted. In their stead Henriot perceived only the heads of the columns of the National Guard advancing in battle array. He reascended the stairs with terror in his looks and imprecations in his mouth, and announced the total defection of the troops upon whom he and the other condemned terrorists had depended. That band of monsters who had sent thousands to the guillotine instantly gave way to ter-

ror and despair, and every one vented his fury on his neighbor. Nothing but mutual execrations could be heard. Some tried to hide, others to escape.

Infuriated by a transport of rage, Coffinhall seized Henriot in his arms, and threw him out of the window, exclaiming: "Vile wretch! your cowardice has undone us all!" His fall was so broken by a dunghill on which he fell that his life was spared for the punishment which he so richly deserved. Lebas seized a pistol and blew out his brains. Robespierre endeavored to do the same, but his hand trembled, and he only succeeded in breaking his lower jaw and disfiguring himself in a shocking manner. St. Just was found with a poniard in his hand, but he lacked the courage to plunge it into his bosom. Couthon crept into a sewer, from which he was dragged by the heels. Robespierre's younger brother threw himself out of the window, but survived his fall.

The Convention's supporters broke into the Hôtel de Ville, traversed its deserted departments, seized Robespierre and his companions, and conveyed them in triumph to the Convention. Robespierre was ordered to be taken to the Place de la Revolution. He was placed for some time with the Committee of General Welfare before he was taken to the Conciergerie. There he was stretched upon a table with a bloody and disfigured countenance, subjected to the view, to the invectives and to the curses of the spectators, while he beheld the different parties rejoicing over his fall, and reproaching him with the crimes which he had committed. He exhibited great insensibility to the excessive pain which he experienced. He was conveyed to the Conciergerie, whence he was brought before the Revolution Tribunal, which condemned him and his associates to death.

About five o'clock in the evening, 10th Thermidor, July 28, 1794, Robespierre ascended the death-cart, and was placed between Henriot and Couthon. Robespierre's head was bound in a bloody cloth. His face was livid, and his eye was almost sightless. A vast multitude gathered around the death-cart, with the most vehement demonstrations of joy. They congratulated each other and embraced each other. They came closer to the cart to obtain a better view of him, and showered him with imprecations. The gens d' armes pointed him out with their swords. He seemed to look upon the multitude with pity. St. Just beheld the crowd with an unmoved eye. The others were more dejected. Robespierre, St. Just, Couthon, Henriot and eighteen others were guillotined amid the shouts of the populace. Robespierre was the last to ascend the scaffold. His head fell amid the most enthusiastic applause, thus proclaiming that the Reign of Terror was ended, and France breathed freely once more. On the following two days seventy-two other terrorists shared the same fate.

There was still a numerous and powerful party of terrorists in the National Convention, as well as in Paris and throughout France; and two new parties were soon formed—that of the Revolutionary committees which depended for support upon the Jacobin clubs and upon the faubourgs; and that of the Thermidorians, composed of those members of the Mountain who had contributed with Tallien to the victory of the 9th Thermidor in the Convention which sent Robespierre and his partisans to the guillotine, and who relied for support upon the majority of the Convention and the armed Sections.

Although the "Tail of Robespierre," as the remaining terrorists were called, appeared more difficult to tame than Robespierre himself, the reaction had rapidly set in after his execution, and moderation gradually obtained the ascendency. The Jacobins and Sans-Culottes were gradually deprived of their power. The assemblies of the people were limited by degrees, and the populace were deprived of their weapons.

At the call of Frèron, who was converted from a republican bloodhound into an aristocrat, many of the young men from the middle classes, called from their clothing *jeunesse dorée*, "the gilded youth," attacked the Jacobins in the streets and at their

clubs with loaded bludgeons, carrying on a war of extermination against them, and singing the song of *The Awakening of the People* in opposition to the *Marseillaise*. The cloister of the Jacobin club was at length taken and its doors were closed, after a desperate struggle, during which Paris resembled one vast battle-field.

The National Convention strengthened itself by recalling the seventy-three members who had been expelled for protesting against the imprisonment of the Girondist leaders, released ten thousand of the suspected from the Paris prisons alone, rescinded the decrees for the banishment of the nobles and the priests and for the death of English and Hanoverian prisoners, restored public worship, suppressed the *maximum*, ordered the statue of Marat in the hall of the Convention to be broken in pieces, and sentenced the worst of the remaining terrorists in the Convention—Lebon, Carrier, Fouquier Tinville and others—to the guillotine.

The reckless action of the Revolutionary government, followed by the hardship of the severe winter of 1794–'95, had produced so dreadful a scarcity that each person in Paris had to be assigned a fixed allowance of bread. As the rich were proscribed, the poor were without employment. The *assignats*—the paper money of the Revolution—had so depreciated that twenty-four thousand francs were paid for a load of fire-wood, and six thousand francs for a single fare in a hackney coach. As the assignats became almost worthless, very many families throughout France were ruined. The farmers avenged themselves for the oppression which they had endured by hoarding up provisions. As famine stalked through the land, the lower classes of France sighed for the system which had given them food as well as political power.

In the provinces, particularly in the South of France, the reaction became even more violent than in Paris; and the Jacobins there became in turn the victims of wholesale massacres, called the "White Terror," to distinguish it from the "Red Terror" which they had themselves established. Almost every town of Southern France had its band of assassins, generally led by an exiled royalist or Girondist, who avenged his own wrongs by new atrocities.

The National Convention condemned four members of the Committee of Public Safety—Barrere, Vadier, Collot d' Herbois and Billaud-Varennes—to banishment, and sent them to the chateau of Ham, along with seventeen turbulent members of the Mountain who had been concerned in an insurrection for their release.

The Jacobins resolved upon a struggle for their existence, and thus incited the populace of Paris to the insurrection of the 11th and 12th Germinal, March 31 and April 1, 1795. The half-starving mob surrounded the Tuileries, in which the Convention was in session, and made menacing demands for bread, for the release of the accused members, and for a return to the Reign of Terror. The mob was dispersed by General Pichegru, who was then in Paris, and who had come to the aid of the distressed Convention with soldiers and citizens.

In the formidable insurrection of the 1st Prairial, May 20, 1795, a mob of thirty thousand persons, composed of the populace of the faubourgs St. Antoine and St. Marceau, surrounded the National Convention for nineteen hours, from seven o'clock in the morning until two at night, for the purpose of enforcing a return to the Reign of Terror; but the insurrection was suppressed by the courageous action of Boissy d'Anglas, the president of the Convention, with the aid of some battalions of the Sections. Some of the leaders of the tumult and six of the Mountain were condemned to death, and the power of the Jacobins and of the Parisian populace terminated. Many Jacobins destroyed themselves; while others were guillotined, imprisoned or banished.

The fall of Robespierre and the terrorists did not affect the progress of the arms of the French Republic. The campaign of 1794, like that of the preceding year, ended in the triumph of the arms of the French Republic. The French army of the Rhine under General Hoche drove the Austrians

under Clairfait and the Prussians under Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick across the Rhine at Philipsburg in October, 1795. After his great victory at Fleurus, June 26, 1794, Jourdan forced the Austrians back toward the Rhine, defeated them disastrously at Ruremonde, October 5, 1794, and drove them into Germany. After thus driving the Austrians from the Austrian Netherlands, the French marched into Germany and quickly occupied Cologne and Treves. Pichegru's victories had given the French full possession of the Austrian Netherlands, and their armies occupied the west bank of the Meuse and all the towns along the Rhine except Mannheim and Mayence.

On the frontier of the Pyrenees the French armies under Generals Dugommier and Moncey continued victorious after the recapture of Bellegarde by Dugommier in the spring of 1794. After a battle of three days at Monte-Nero, November 27, 1794, in which the two generals were slain, the Spaniards were repulsed by Perignon. The French took Figuieres, February 4, 1795, and Roses about two months later. The Spaniards were driven out of France; and the Western French army of the Pyrenees under General Moncey invaded Spain and took Fontarabia, August 1, 1794, and San Sebastian, August 11, 1794, and defeated the Spaniards at Pampeluna, November 8, 1794, thus spreading consternation to the very gates of Madrid.

The campaign of 1795 was opened by the French army under General Pichegru, who, favored by the rigor of winter and the intrigues of the republican, or anti-Orange party in Holland, had crossed the Meuse on the ice late in December, 1794, and defeated the English and Dutch at Nimeguen, January 11, 1795, compelling them to make a disastrous retreat. Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph, January 20, 1795. The English army under the Duke of York retreated into Northern Germany to Bremen, and thence sailed to England.

Pichegru, with his half-clad and half-starved army, took possession of the rich land, compelled the hereditary Stadtholder to flee to England, and thus revolutionized Holland, which was converted into the *Batavian Republic*, with democratic rights, Trees of Liberty and popular clubs. During the remaining period of the French Revolution, Holland was the ally of France; and French troops were fed and clothed at the expense of the country, while vast sums of money were sent to Paris to defray the expenses of the war. As Holland thus became the ally of France, war followed between England and Holland, and the Dutch colonies in the New World and in the East Indies were conquered by British fleets.

Most of the allied powers were subsidized by Great Britain, whose commercial interest affected by the war was greater than that of any other European power, though her political concern was less. King Frederick William II. of Prussia was absorbed in his designs upon Poland; and a powerful party in Austria, under the leading Minister, preferred a share of the spoils of ill-fated Poland, or the prosecution of the claims of the Emperor Francis II. upon Bavaria, to a war with the French Republic. Accordingly Francis II. withdrew his armies from the Austrian Netherlands, and thus abandoned those provinces to the French.

By capturing Mont Cenis and the passes of the Maritime Alps, the French had secured the keys of Italy. Alarmed by the rapid advance of the French, the Grand Duke of Tuscany deserted the cause of his brother, the Emperor Francis II. of Germany, and retired from the First Coalition against the French Republic by signing a treaty of peace and neutrality with France, at Paris, February 9, 1795.

King Frederick William II. of Prussia, whose finances were exhausted, waited until he had received a subsidy from England to fight France, which subsidy he used against Poland, and then entered into negotiations with the French ambassador at Berlin, Barthelemy. These negotiations were concluded at Basle by Baron Hardenberg on the part of Prussia, April 5, 1795. By the Peace of Basle, Prussia retired from the European Coalition, abandoned the west

bank of the Rhine, with Holland, to France, and even guaranteed the neutrality of the North of Germany, according to a line of demarcation from Southern Germany, this line being fixed by a special convention, May 17, 1795. The Landgrave of Hesse Cassel afterward also made peace with France at Basle, August 28, 1795. Frederick William II. of Prussia died in 1797, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK WILLIAM III.

The year 1795 was chiefly passed in negotiations. The German Imperial Diet at Ratisbon expressed its desire for peace, and when peace was not negotiated several German princes concluded separate treaties with France though the mediation of Prussia. The death of the youthful Louis XVII. in his loathsome dungeon, June 8, 1795, opened the way for peace between King Charles IV. of Spain and the French Republic; for so long as the young prince lived the honor of his Spanish Bourbon kinsman demanded his release as the first condition of a treaty of peace. Just after the French army under General Moncey in Spain had defeated the Spaniards at Ormea and occupied Bilbao, the Chevalier Yriarte, as plenipotentiary of Spain, signed a treaty of peace with the French Republic at Basle, July 6, 1795. By this Peace of Basle, Spain ceded her portion of the island of San Domingo to France, and recognized both the French and Batavian Republics. The worthless favorite Godoy, who ruled King Charles IV. of Spain and his court, received the title of *Prince of Peace* for his share in this treaty, which diffused unbounded joy throughout Spain.

In the meantime the Vendeans had formed themselves into bands of insurgents in Brittany and Normandy, under the name of *Chouans*. After Larochejacquelin's death Charette and Sapineau made peace with the National Convention at Jausnaie, February 17, 1795. Cormartin, the leader of the Chouans, also concluded peace with the National Convention at Mabilais; but several weeks later the Convention caused him to be arrested and shot with seven other chiefs, thus giving rise to another insurrection in La Vendée under Charette and Stofflet.

At length the British government resolved to send assistance to the Vendean insurgents; and, after the victory of the British fleet under Lord Bridport over the French fleet off L'Orient, June 18, 1795, three thousand French Emigrants were landed on the island or peninsula of Quiberon, where they proclaimed the Count of Provence sovereign of France with the title of Louis XVIII.; but they were reduced by General Hoche, who promised to spare their lives, but was unable to prevent the five hundred and sixty survivors, who were young men of the best families, from being shot by order of Tallien, June 21, 1795. Charette retaliated by the massacre of more than a thousand republicans who were in his power.

The National Convention now framed the *Constitution of the Year III.*, vesting the legislative power in the *Cinq Cents*, or Council of Five Hundred, which had the power of originating laws, and the *Anciens*, or Council of Ancients, which had the power of approving or rejecting these laws. The members of these two Councils, or legislative bodies, were appointed by delegates elected for that purpose by the French people. The legislative power was vested in a *Directory* of five men, to be named by the Council of Five Hundred, and confirmed by the Council of Ancients. Each of the Directors presided for a period of three months, and during that time affixed the signatures and kept the seals. One Director was elected each year. The Directory had a guard and the Luxembourg Palace for its residence.

The republicans of the National Convention, fearing that the reaction in favor of monarchical principles would deprive them of political power, decreed that two-thirds of the members of the legislative Councils should be chosen from the members of the Convention. The royalists, after vainly objecting to this decree of the Convention, which limited the freedom of election, brought about the *Insurrection of*

the Sections, on the 11th Vendemiaire, 3d of October, 1795.

The National Convention, alarmed at the popular commotion, declared its sittings permanent, summoned around it the camp of Sablous, and made the first attack. But General Menou, the commander of the Convention's troops, suffered himself to be outgeneraled; and his expedition produced the same effect as a victory of the Sections. The Convention then called upon General Barras to provide for its defense. At the request of Barras, Napoleon Bonaparte, the young artillery officer who had distinguished himself under General Dugommier at the siege of Toulon, was appointed second in command.

As the young Corsican was a man of skill and resolution, he was well qualified to command in this dangerous emergency. When he appeared before the Convention's committee he did not display any of the astonishing qualities which were soon to distinguish him. As he was not much of a party man, but simply an army officer, and summoned upon this great scene for the first time, his countenance assumed an expression of timidity and bashfulness, which instantly vanished amid the bustle of preparation and the ardor of battle.

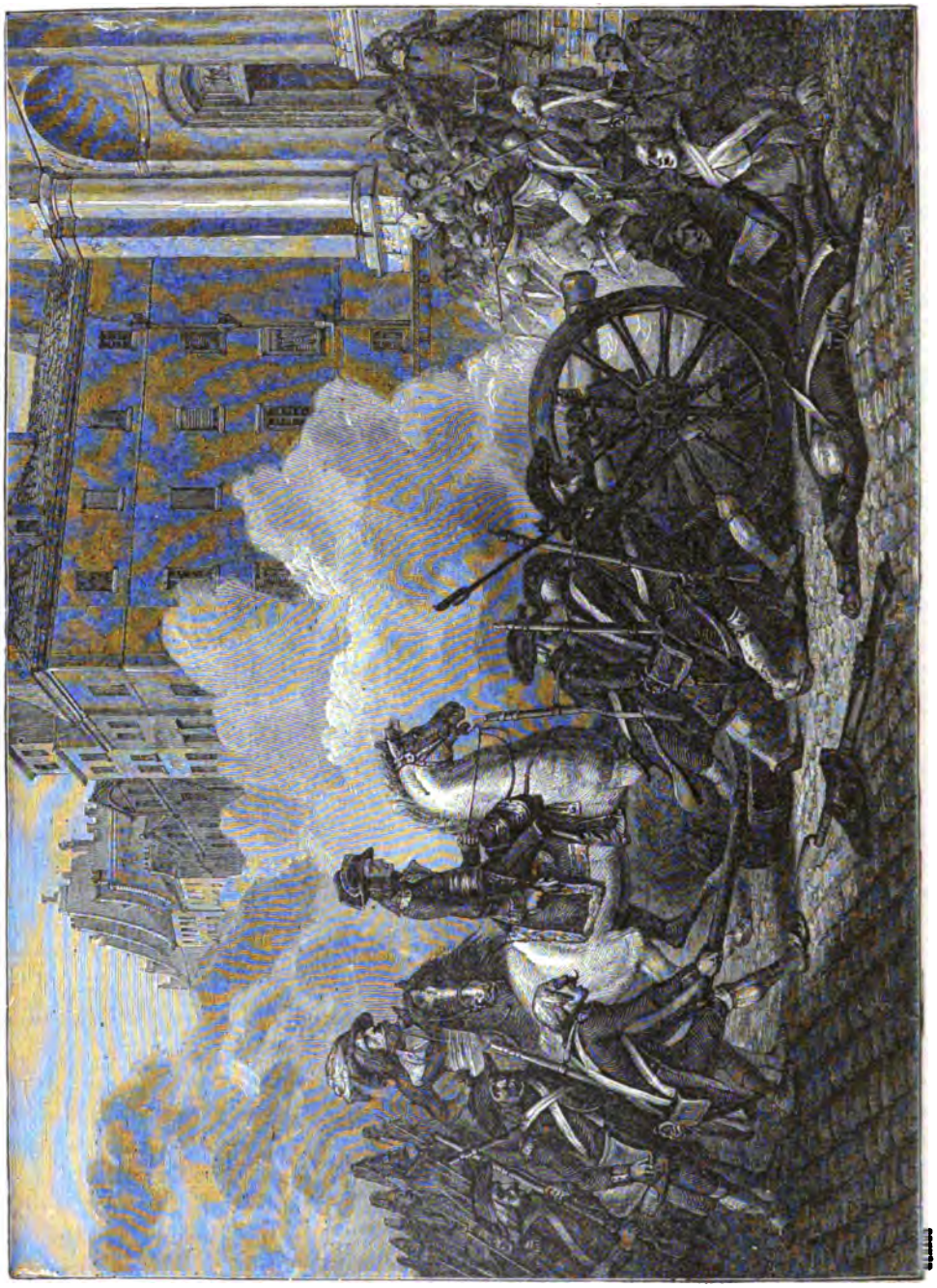
Bonaparte sent Murat hastily for the camp artillery. Murat arrived at the park in the middle of the night with hundreds of cavalrymen, and brought the cannon to Bonaparte, who placed them in the avenues leading to the Tuileries, and loaded them with grapeshot. The army of the Convention, which Bonaparte thus virtually commanded, numbered five thousand men, which he disposed with their cannon to await the attack by the forty thousand armed insurgents of the Sections, under the command of Generals Danican, Duhoux and Lafon, who very soon surrounded the Convention. Upon being admitted to a parley in the Convention, Danican summoned that body to withdraw the troops and disarm the terrorists. The report of several discharges of musketry suddenly ended the deliberations on Danican's demand. Seven hundred muskets were brought into the Convention, and the members armed themselves as a body of reserve.

The conflict began in the Rue St. Honoré and soon became general. The cannon of Bonaparte's little army discharged their grapeshot, shivering the ranks of the battalions of the Sections, who dispersed after a desperate effort to charge the cannon. After a desperate street fight of less than two hours the armed insurgents of the Sections had lost two thousand killed, and at seven in the evening the Convention's troops assumed the offensive and were victorious at every point, 13th Vendemiaire, October 5, 1795. The next day the Convention's victorious troops disarmed the Section of Lepelletier and reduced all the other Sections to submission.

In the hall of the National Convention, General Barras frankly told the other members that the Convention's victory was due to General Bonaparte's prompt and skillful disposition of the troops, and that the Convention was indebted to that young officer for their own security and for the freedom of their deliberations. The Convention acknowledged Bonaparte's services by felicitations and acclamations, and appointed him General of Division and second in command of the army of the Interior; Barras nominally retaining the chief command, which, however, he soon after resigned when he was appointed a member of the Directory, assigning it to his protegé, whom he familiarly styled "the little Corsican officer," and who was then only twenty-six years of age and had just married Josephine, the widow of General Beauharnais.

Bonaparte's victory over the Sections gave the National Convention leisure to occupy itself with the formation of the two legislative Councils. General Barras was chosen one of the five Directors, on account of his part in securing the victories of the Convention over Robespierre's armed supporters in July, 1794, and over the armed insurgents of the Sections in October, 1795. The other four Directors were Lareveillere-Lepaux, whose probity, moderation and cour-

age had acquired for him universal confidence; Sieyès, the man of greatest reputation in his time; Rewbell, an active man in the administrative department of the state; litical honesty and ability had saved him when the other members of the Committee of Public Safety fell, was appointed to the vacant place in the Directory. On the 4th



BONAPARTE PUTTING DOWN THE MOB ON THE THIRTEENTH VENDÉMIAIRE.

and Letourneur, a man of some political distinction. But Sieyès declined to be made one of the Directors; and Carnot, whose po- Brumaire, October 26, 1795, the National Convention passed an act of oblivion as the first measure of the rule of law, altered the

name of the *Place de la Revolution* to that of the *Place de la Concorde*, and then adjourned *sine die*.

Thus ended the National Convention, which had endured three years, from September 22, 1792, to October 26, 1795, in which the violence of the different factions changed the French Revolution into a war against royalism in Europe, and the hall of the Convention into a battle-field. Each party struggled for victory to acquire the supremacy, and sought to effect the establishment of its own system for the purpose of securing such victory. The Girondists, the party of the Commune, the Dantonists and the party of Robespierre successively tried and perished. These different parties gained victories, but were unable to establish their systems.

The natural result of such a condition of affairs was the ruin of every party that sought to restore peace and order to France. Everything was merely provisional—power, men, parties, systems—because war was the only thing possible. The Convention spent the entire year from the time that it had recovered its authority in restoring the reign of law in France—an object finally accomplished by the victories of the 2d Prairial, May 21, 1795, and the 13th Vendemiaire, October 5, 1795.

The Convention had now returned to its starting point by having effected its real design, the protection and consolidation of the French Republic. After thus astonishing the world, it became a thing of the past. As a revolutionary power it began to exercise its functions as soon as law and order had given place to terror and violence, and it ended its career as soon as law and order were restored. The three years of the Convention's dictatorship had been lost to liberty, but not to the Revolution.

The Directory began its administration with an empty treasury, the assignats having so depreciated that this paper currency was not worth the expense of printing it; while a starving mob had to be supported at the expense of the government. Each poor inhabitant of Paris had to subsist on two ounces of bread and a handful of rice each day, and even this miserable pittance often failed. The French army was destitute of rations. Roads, bridges and canals had fallen into ruin during the Reign of Terror; while bands of robbers and assassins infested the country, plundering and murdering with perfect impunity.

The first care of the Directory was to establish its power by honestly adopting the constitutional course. Very soon confidence, trade and commerce were restored; and the Revolutionary clubs began to be abandoned for the workshops and the fields. That period was remarkable for its great license of manners, which the voluptuous Director Barras was the first to encourage. But the rich were still subjected to violent and rapacious measures.

So great and pressing were the wants of the Republic that the new government resorted to a forced loan of six hundred million francs in specie, and replaced the assignats by another sort of paper money called *rescriptions*, which were soon discredited. It then created territorial *mandats*, which were to be used in retiring the assignats from circulation at the rate of thirty for one, and in performing the office of a currency. These mandats had the advantage of being instantly exchangeable for the national domains which they represented, and furnished a momentary resource to the state; but they afterward fell into discredit, and their depreciation led to a bankruptcy amounting to thirty-three thousand million francs.

When the Directory came into power the military affairs of the French Republic had become less prosperous than at any time previously. The campaign of 1795 had been retarded by the retirement of Prussia and by the scarcity which prevailed in France.

The French force under Field Marshal Bender reduced Luxemburg after a siege of eight months; and, as an abundant harvest had again brought plenty, the French army of the Sambre and the Meuse under Jourdan, and that of the Rhine and the Moselle

under Pichegru, crossed the Rhine. Jourdan was beaten by the Austrians under Clairfait at Hochst, October 11, 1795, with the loss of all his artillery, ammunition and baggage; after which he recrossed the Rhine in great disorder, and the siege of Mayence by the French was raised. Pichegru took Heidelberg and Mannheim, September 22, 1795, but he also retreated; whereupon the Austrians under General Wurmser retook Heidelberg, September 24, 1795, and Mannheim also after a severe bombardment of several days, which laid a part of the town in ruins. An armistice was concluded on the last day of 1795.

The failure of the French operations in Germany was owing partly to the treachery of General Pichegru, who, like Dumouriez several years before, entertained the design of restoring the throne of the Bourbons in France; but his indecisive movements only lost him the confidence of the Directory, and he retired from the army in disgust.

In Italy the French were driven from Piedmont and the territories of Genoa, which they had invaded; but the victory which Scherer won over De Vins at Lovano, November 23, 1795, was a forerunner to greater successes which the French gained the next year.

The Directory succeeded in ending the civil war in La Vendée—a result attributable to the firmness and moderation of General Hoche. He defeated Charette and took him prisoner, and Stofflet was betrayed into the hands of the republicans. Stofflet was shot at Angers, the old capital of Anjou, February 25, 1796; and Charette suffered the same fate at Nantes, March 29, 1796. The Count d'Autichamp and the other Vendean generals signed a treaty of peace with General Hoche. George Cadoudal, the leader of the Chouans, and other Vendean chiefs, renewed the war in Brittany, but were also soon conquered by General Hoche, and submitted or fled to England. The Directory announced to the legislative Councils the end of the civil war in La Vendée, July 17, 1796. Thus ended the resistance of the Vendean royalists to the Republic.

As the Directory was detested by the violent republicans as well as by the royalists it had to sustain attacks from both parties. The first effort to overthrow it was made by the republicans under the guidance of Gracchus Babœuf, who, like the Roman Tribune whose name he assumed, desired to establish an equalization of property and a new division of lands. He was joined by some of the old Jacobins, the most prominent of whom was Drouet, May 10, 1796. But the plot was discovered; and, after some legal proceedings, which attracted considerable attention, Babœuf and another conspirator were guillotined, and the others were banished from France. The Conspiracy of the Camp at Grenoble, September 9, 1796, was also suppressed.

General Moreau was assigned to the command of the French army of the Rhine, after the retirement of Pichegru. Jourdan retained the command of that of the Sambre and the Meuse. Carnot, who still directed the military operations of France, formed a plan of campaign by which these two armies were to march upon Vienna, in conjunction with the French army of Italy, the command of which was assigned to General Bonaparte, who, then in his twenty-seventh year, began his wonderful military career.

Young Bonaparte's eagerness to begin operation drew some remonstrances upon him. It was suggested to him that there were many things lacking in his army that were essential to a campaign. He replied: "I have enough if successful, and too many should I be beaten." He lost no time in arriving at Nice; and when he assumed command of his army there, March 27, 1796, he planned one of the most daring invasions. He found his army of thirty-five thousand men in a wretched state of disorder and inefficiency through the neglect of the government. But he soon infused his own energetic spirit into his troops, firing their imaginations with promises of wealth in Italy and applause in France, and marched on Genoa without delay, entering Italy between the Alps and the Apennines.

The Austrian army was at Tortona and

Alessandria, the Sardinian at Ceva. Bonaparte defeated the Austrians under Beaulieu at Montenotte and Millessimo, in April, 1796, and so completely separated the Austrian and Sardinian armies that they hastened severally to the defense of Milan and Turin. His victory at Mondova decided the fate of Piedmont; and the terrified Sardinian king, Victor Amadeus III., hastily concluded a humiliating peace with the French Republic, to which he ceded the duchy of Savoy and the county of Nice; while he expelled the French Emigrants from his dominions, including even his own daughters, who were married to the two brothers of Louis XVI.; and six of the strongest fortresses of his kingdom were placed in the hands of the French as security until the conclusion of a general peace between all the belligerents.

In May, Bonaparte crossed the Po with his army, and advanced to attack the Austrians. The bridge of Lodi, across the river Adda, was strongly guarded by an Austrian force, which opened a tremendous discharge of grapeshot upon the French troops when they attempted to cross. The advance was checked for a moment, when the French grenadiers rushed forward with irresistible impetuosity, drove back the Austrians, and thus forced a passage over the bridge. This victory, known as the battle of Lodi, occurred on the 10th of May, 1796, and gave the French possession of Milan and the Lombard towns.

The victorious Bonaparte was enthusiastically welcomed by the people of Milan, and he fixed his headquarters at that city, May 15, 1796. He subjected the towns of Lombardy, and so terrified the smaller princes of Italy by the success of his arms and by his insolence that they were only too glad to make peace with him at any price. He extorted large sums of money and war-materials, as well as valuable pictures, statues and other works of art, and manuscripts, from the Dukes of Parma, Modena, Lucca, Tuscany, etc. He followed the example of the Roman generals, with whose lives he was made familiar from Plutarch's descriptions. He enriched and adorned Paris with these productions of the mind and these works of art in order to gratify the vain and spectacle-loving Parisians. He supported the weak Directory with the supplies of money which he had exacted from the Italian princes.

Bonaparte's rapid successes, and his boldness in venturing to treat independently with the King of Sardinia, so astonished and alarmed the Directory that that body designed to restrain him by dividing the command of the French army in Italy between him and General Kellerman; but Bonaparte declined to accept this divided command, and tendered his resignation to the Directory. His brilliant successes in Italy had rendered him so popular in France that the Directory did not dare to accept his resignation, and ceased interfering with him.

After giving his troops twelve days of rest at Milan, Bonaparte marched against Mantua, the chief Austrian stronghold in Italy, and the key to all further operations against Austria. Bonaparte at once laid siege to that strong fortress, the strongest in all Italy. The strenuous efforts of the Austrian generals to relieve it showed their appreciation of its importance.

As the Austrian army under Beaulieu had been broken up by its defeats at Montenotte, Millessimo and Lodi, Marshal Wurmser was sent with a new Austrian army, numbering seventy thousand men, to the relief of Mantua. Wurmser twice entered Italy from the Tyrol for that purpose; but he was defeated by the youthful Bonaparte at Brescia, Castiglione, Roveredo and Bassano. Wurmser, being unable to keep the field, retired with the remains of his army within the walls of Mantua, as that fortress was well-provisioned and capable of enduring a long siege.

The campaign of 1796 in Germany was conducted by the French armies under Moreau and Jourdan, who were opposed by an Austrian and German imperial army of more than one hundred thousand men under the Archduke Charles, the brother of the Emperor Francis II. and one of the greatest generals of that time.

Moreau crossed the Rhine into Germany between Strasburg and Kehl, while Jourdan effected a passage of the same river at Mayence. Moreau entered Ulm and Augsburg, crossed the Lech, and pushed his vanguard to the last pass of the Tyrol; but Jourdan was defeated by the Archduke Charles at Wurzburg, September 3, 1796, and was consequently obliged to retreat across the Rhine into France. The inhabitants of Spessart and Odenwald, exasperated at the oppressions and exactions of the French, rose against the retreating foe, destroying the French soldiers wherever they strayed from their ranks.

Jourdan's defeat left Moreau, who had advanced as far as Munich, in an extremely perilous situation; as the Archduke Charles made great exertions to cut off his communications with France. Moreau extricated himself from his dangerous situation by a masterly retreat through the valley of the Danube and the Black Forest to the valley of the Rhine; but he was defeated by the Archduke Charles at Emmendingen, driven from Hohenblau, and compelled to recross the Rhine, September 19, 1796.

The Archduke Charles then besieged the fortresses of Kehl and Huningen; but these fortresses were defended by the French until the close of the campaign, and their garrisons only capitulated when all resistance was hopeless, thus leaving the besiegers masters only of heaps of ruins. The German princes mostly followed the example of Prussia in making peace with France, October 24, 1796, instead of encouraging the risings of their subjects against the retreating French.

The retreat of Moreau and Jourdan left Bonaparte's army in Italy to bear the full weight of the Austrian power; and a third Austrian army, consisting of sixty thousand Hungarians, under Marshal Alvinzi, was sent into Italy to relieve Wurmser at Mantua and to drive Bonaparte out of Italy. The great numerical superiority of the Austrians threatened to sweep everything before them in the plains of Lombardy. A severe but indecisive engagement occurred at Vicenza, and Bonaparte's position became exceedingly critical. The young general failed in an attack on the heights of Caldiero, but his bold movements soon changed the aspect of affairs.

On the 15th of November, 1796, Bonaparte marched to attack Alvinzi at the village of Arcola. The narrow causeways leading to the village were closely guarded by the Austrians. The French column that attempted to cross the bridge of Arcola was driven back with terriffic slaughter; whereupon Bonaparte, seizing a standard, rushed on the bridge and urged on his grenadiers, but they were repulsed; and Napoleon was in extreme danger of being made a prisoner, when his grenadiers suddenly rushed forward with the cry of "Save the General!" and, with resistless fury, forced a passage over the bridge. Thus began the three days' battle of Arcola, November 15–17, 1796, which ended in the utter defeat of Alvinzi, who was obliged to retreat to Montebello.

The British had already conquered the Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch. Early in 1796 they also took Ceylon, Malacca, Cochin, Trincomalee and the Spice Islands, in the East Indies, from them; and Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo, in Dutch Guiana, in South America, in May, 1796. The English successively captured the islands of Martinique, St. Lucia, Guadaloupe and St. Domingo, in the West Indies, from the French.

By the Treaty of San Ildefonso, August 19, 1796, an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between Spain and the French Republic, based upon the Family Compact of the Bourbons in 1761; and in October of the same year Spain declared war against Great Britain.

England, with Austria as her only ally, and with France, Holland and Spain as her active enemies, now sought peace. Mr. Pitt ordered the British troops to evacuate the island of Corsica, October 21, 1796, whereupon the French took possession of the island. Mr. Pitt also sent Lord Malmesbury to Lille to negotiate a treaty with

France; but this effort failed, October 24, 1796, as the conditions were not agreeable to the three Directors who constituted the majority. Edmund Burke, in his *Letters on a Regicide Peace*, denounced Pitt's efforts to negotiate with France, and thus fired the military ardor of the English people.

A powerful French fleet under Admiral Morard de Galles, carrying twenty-five thousand troops under General Hoche, sailed on December 15, 1796, for the invasion of Ireland, where a formidable conspiracy against British power existed; but this powerful French expedition was dispersed by tempests, and was obliged to return to France without even effecting a landing in Ireland.

The British fleet under Sir John Jervis defeated a Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, on the coast of Portugal, February 14, 1797. England's credit had now sunk to its lowest ebb; and in February, 1797, the Bank of England suspended specie payments. An alarming mutiny of the Channel fleet, lasting three months, was ended only by the most humiliating concessions. In this dark hour of the struggle Burke passed away, protesting against Pitt's fresh efforts to negotiate a peace with France at Lille. Pitt's efforts for peace were again foiled by the undying hatred between the two nations. But the British naval victories at this period restored the confidence of the English people. The Channel fleet under Admiral Duncan defeated the Dutch fleet under Van Winter off Camperdown, on the coast of Holland, October 11, 1797.

At the beginning of 1797 the Austrians made a fourth attempt to save Mantua. Alvinzi was then largely reinforced; and early in January, 1797, he appeared on the Adige with an army of sixty thousand men. Bonaparte had received only seven thousand recruits to replace all his losses in his last two campaigns; but he marched against the main body of the Austrian army under Alvinzi, and won a great victory at Rivoli, January 14, 1797. The superior military genius of the French commander triumphed over the superior numbers of the Austrians. Alvinzi retreated into the Tyrol with his shattered army; and Wurmser was obliged to surrender Mantua and his army of twenty thousand men to Bonaparte, February 2, 1797, after a siege of seven months, thus opening the way to an invasion of Austria.

But before invading Austria, Bonaparte, by a sudden and quick movement, overran the States of the Church. He had received orders from the Directory to overthrow the papal government; but he disregarded these instructions by concluding the Peace of Tolentino with Pope Pius VI., who thus ceded to France the states of Bologna, Ferrara and the Romagna, in Italy, and the city of Avignon and the Venaissin, in France, and paid a contribution of fifteen million francs and the choicest works of art in Rome, February 19, 1797.

Thus the youthful Napoleon Bonaparte astonished the world by his brilliant military achievements, and leaped at a bound to the rank of the greatest general of the world. Within less than a year in Italy he had conquered Piedmont and Lombardy; destroyed or captured four Austrian armies; detached the Kings of Sardinia and Naples, and the Dukes of Parma, Modena and Tuscany, from the European Coalition; laid Venice and Genoa under heavy contributions; and annexed Avignon and the Venaissin, Savoy, Nice, Bologna, Ferrara and the Romagna to the dominion of France. The spoils of war supported its expense, enriched officers and troops, and enabled Bonaparte to remit thirty million francs to the Directory.

Early in the spring of 1797 Bonaparte set out for the invasion of Austria, after animating his troops by a spirited address in which he recounted to them the glories of their recent campaigns in Italy. In this address he said to his troops: "You have been victorious in fourteen pitched battles and seventy combats. You have made one hundred thousand prisoners, taken five hundred pieces of field artillery, two thousand of heavy caliber, and four sets of pontoons. The contributions you have levied on the vanquished countries have clothed,

fed and paid the army. You have, besides, added thirty millions of francs to the public treasury; and you have enriched the museum of Paris with three hundred masterpieces of the works of art, the produce of thirty centuries."

Bonaparte led an army of sixty thousand men through the narrow defiles of the Tyrolese Alps into the hereditary Austrian territories. He was opposed by a fifth Austrian army under the Archduke Charles, who awaited him in Friuli, and whom he defeated in a series of sharp engagements, driving him beyond the Save. The Archduke Charles was pursued by Bonaparte as far as Klagenfurth, within a few days' march of Vienna, when the triumphant French general consented to the proposal of the Emperor Francis II. for an armistice.

Francis II. and his court were anxious for the fate of their capital, and dismay and alarm seized upon all classes in Vienna. The fears of the Austrian court and the cries of the Viennese for peace resulted in sending five Austrian envoys to the triumphant Bonaparte, who first granted an armistice of five days, which he afterward extended, as the probability of a treaty of peace became evident. The Preliminary Peace of Leoben was signed by Bonaparte and the Austrian envoys, April 18, 1797. One of the Austrian plenipotentiaries stated that the Emperor Francis II. acknowledged the existence of the French Republic. Bonaparte replied sternly: "Strike out that clause. The French Republic is like the sun in heaven. The misfortune lies with those who are so blind as to be ignorant of the existence of either."

About the time of the conclusion of the Preliminary Peace of Leoben, a popular rising against the French had broken out in the territory of the Republic of Venice, in consequence of a false rumor of a defeat of Bonaparte by the Austrians in the Tyrol; and four hundred sick and wounded French soldiers in the hospital at Verona and many other Frenchmen in the vicinity of that city were massacred.

Bonaparte instantly declared war against the Venetian Republic, and sent a detachment to occupy its arsenal and forts. The cowardice of the Doge and the aristocratic Council of Ten facilitated Bonaparte's enterprise. Instead of offering a brave resistance to the French and falling with honor, the Council of Ten humbly implored the grace of the youthful conqueror. Bonaparte replied: "French blood has been treacherously shed. The Lion of St. Mark must lick the dust." In the midst of the consternation occasioned by his answer, Bonaparte appeared on the opposite side of the Lagoon; and some of his troops were already in the city when the Doge and the Council of Ten submitted unconditionally.

Bonaparte then exacted the severest conditions. He demanded the overthrow of the aristocratic government in Venice, the arrest and trial of the leading magistrates, the release of all political prisoners, and the disbandment of the Venetian army and navy. The French party prevailed; and the Council of Ten relinquished its authority and acknowledged the sovereignty of the people, whereupon the government was administered by a democratic council.

A riot which broke out in Venice was made a pretext for the introduction of French troops, who marched into the city in May, 1797, seized the Venetian fleet and the stores of the arsenal, plundered the churches, galleries and libraries of their richest ornaments and most valued treasures, and, with the aid of the captured Venetian fleet, conquered the Ionian Isles for France. The French kept possession of the city until the conclusion of the definitive treaty of peace with Austria.

France was at this time distracted by the contests of parties. So great a reaction had taken place among the French people that the advocates of monarchy secured the election of their candidates to the legislative Councils by large majorities, in May, 1797. The Councils immediately denounced the policy of the Directory, and manifested a disposition to overthrow the republican constitution and reëstablish monarchy. Emigrants and unsworn priests returned to

France in large numbers, and made no secret of their design to overthrow the Republic. Two of the Directors—Carnot and Barthelemy—sided with the royalist majority in the Councils. The other three Directors—Barras, Rewbell and Lareveillere-Lepaux—became alarmed for the security of their power, and resolved to maintain the Republic. These three Directors proceeded to break up the authority of the Councils, and caused several regiments from General Hoche's army to approach Paris. The Councils, with their royalist majorities, broke out into furious menaces; and the three republican Directors replied by threatening addresses from the armies. Carnot and Barthelemy vainly sought to restore harmony.

A plan was formed by which the Councils might obtain the victory; and Pichegru, as president of the Council of Five Hundred, was to execute it. Promptness and courage were necessary, but Pichegru hesitated. On the other hand, the Directory acted with the boldness which the crisis demanded. The three republican Directors—Barras, Rewbell and Lareveillere-Lepaux—resolved upon a *coup d'état* on the morning of the 18th Fructidor, September 4, 1797. They sought aid from Generals Bonaparte and Hoche, the latter of whom then commanded one of the French armies on the Rhine. Hoche rapidly advanced on Paris with a large military force; while Bonaparte sent General Augereau, one of his most trusted officers, who was selected to command the army of Paris.

On the evening before the appointed day the troops stationed around Paris entered the city under Augereau's command. The *coup d'état* was finished between four and six o'clock in the morning of the 18th Fructidor. General Augereau surrounded the Tuileries with his troops, and ordered the royalist deputies to be arrested. Augereau himself arrested Pichegru, Willot and Ramel in the hall of session; and as the royalist members came hastily to the hall they were either arrested or refused admission. Augereau informed them that the Directory had decided upon the Odeon as the place of meeting for the Council of Ancients, and upon the School of Medicine for the meeting of the Council of Five Hundred.

The two Directors who sided with the royalists—Carnot and Barthelemy—along with eleven members of the Council of Ancients and forty-two of the Council of Five Hundred, among whom was Pichegru, were arrested and imprisoned. The three republican Directors produced Pichegru's correspondence with the exiled Bourbon princes, and the Councils sustained the action of these three Directors. The prisoners were banished to Cayenne, in French Guiana, in South America. The royalist elections were then annulled, the returned Emigrants were banished, and thirty-five newspapers were suppressed.

Thus the expressed will of the French people was set aside by the military usurpation known as the *Revolution of the Eighteenth Fructidor*. This *coup d'état* ruined the royalist party, revived the republican party, taught the army the secret of its strength, and substituted military rule for the supremacy of law. Merlin de Douai and François de Neufchateau were substituted as Directors in the places of Carnot and Barthelemy.

The Directory intrusted the whole conduct of the negotiations with Austria to General Bonaparte; and the Definitive Peace of Campo Formio, near Udine, in Venetian territory, October 17, 1797, left England as the only power at war with the French Republic. By this famous treaty a great part of Northern Italy—Mantua, Milan, Modena, Ferrara, Bologna and the Romagna, with their dependencies—were erected into the *Cisalpine Republic*, which became a virtual dependency of France. The Austrian Netherlands, the German territory west of the Rhine with Mayence, and the Ionian Isles, were ceded to France; while Austria received Venice, with her provinces of Istria and Dalmatia. The Emperor Francis II. promised to withdraw the German imperial troops from the Rhine fortresses; and, in case the German Imperial Diet refused to

ratify these terms, he agreed to contribute only his contingent as Archduke of Austria. The German princes, prelates and nobles who suffered from this cession of the western Rhineland were to be indemnified on the east side of the river. These and other points were to be settled by a Congress of France and the German powers at Rastadt, in the territory of Baden.

Thus, by the Peace of Campo Formio, the Venetian Republic ceased to exist, after having lasted thirteen hundred and forty-five years, A. D. 452–1797. Genoa and some of the adjacent territories were erected into the *Ligurian Republic*, which was also virtually under the control of France.

After opening the Congress of Rastadt, Bonaparte returned to France, December, 1797. He was received in Paris with a most magnificent ovation, and was by far the most popular man in France. Efforts were made to induce the government to give him some substantial recognition of his great military services, but the jealous Directory refused to make the well-merited reward.

England, the only power now at war with the French Republic, was anxious for peace. The other powers were at that time little disposed to attack Revolutionary France, every administration of which had been victorious, and which, upon every fresh victory, encroached farther on the territories of her neighbors. In 1792 the French Revolution extended only to the Austrian Netherlands. In 1794 it had advanced to Holland and to the Rhine. In 1796 it had overrun Northern Italy and penetrated into part of Germany. It was probable that, if its march were resumed, it would achieve more distant conquests; as it had become more aggressive with each new victory.

The States of the Church were infested with malcontents who were ready to join in a revolution there, and during the winter of 1797–'98 French influence occasioned republican outbreaks at Rome and at other places in the States of the Church. During the suppression of a republican riot at Rome by the papal troops the French General Duphot, who was present, was killed. The French government, seizing upon this as a pretext, sent a force under General Berthier to Rome, February, 1798. The French were welcomed by the Romans as deliverers. The Pope was deprived of his temporal power; and General Berthier proclaimed the restoration of the *Roman Republic* with Senators, Consuls and Tribunes.

The gray-haired Pope Pius VI. made no resistance, though his personal property was inventoried, even to the rings upon his hands. He would not accept a pension from his captors, and was conveyed like a prisoner to a convent at Siena.

The French imposed severe military levies and imposts upon Rome, and carried the most valuable works of art to Paris; and Rome was subjected to a pillage unsurpassed by those of the Goths, Vandals or Normans centuries before. Priestly robes were burned for the gold in their embroidery, palaces and churches were ransacked, and their treasures of art were carried away or destroyed. The Romans, thus disappointed in the friends who had gained their favor by the high-sounding names of "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity," rose against the French, but were reduced to submission with terrible loss of life. General Berthier was so disgusted by the violation of his own engagements to respect private property that he asked the Directory to recall him; and General Massena, who was appointed his successor, was so notorious a freebooter that the army itself refused to receive him, and mutinied.

Switzerland was also revolutionized by the French in 1798. The Cantons of Berne and Vaud were governed by an aristocratic council, all the members of which belonged to patrician families. The Vaudois, who spoke the French language and entertained French ideas, were infected with revolutionary doctrines. Excited by the French republicans, the Vaudois took up arms to cast off the assumed authority of the Bernese; but the revolted Vaudois were not a match for their antagonists, and they therefore claimed the assistance of the French.

Talleyrand, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, discovered a pretext for intervention in some old treaties of the times of Charles IX. and Henry III., by which France guaranteed the independence of Vaud. Accordingly a French force under General Brune was ordered into Switzerland from Italy. General Brune advanced into Switzerland without serious opposition, and at Lausanne he proclaimed the independence of Vaud. General Brune took possession of Berne, siezed the rich treasures and the arsenal, and extorted vast sums of money from the helpless country by military levies. The Forest Cantons made a heroic and stubborn resistance to the French invaders, and defeated them in several battles with heavy loss; but these Cantons were at length overpowered by superior numbers, and a frightful massacre was the punishment of their efforts.

With the support of the democratic party of Switzerland, headed by Ochs of Basle and Laharpe of Vaud, the French converted Switzerland into the one and indivisible *Helvetic Republic*, which, by a treaty of peace and alliance, was virtually placed under the supremacy of France, which thus secured two military roads, one into Southern Germany, and one over the Simplon into Northern Italy.

In the beginning of 1798 the French Directory threatened an invasion of England, the only country then at war with France. An army of one hundred and fifty thousand men, under the name of the *Army of England*, under the command of Bonaparte, the youthful conqueror of Italy, was assembled along the French side of the English Channel. A French force of a thousand men under General Humbert was sent to Ireland to assist the rebellion of the United Irishmen; but the Irish insurgents had already been overthrown by English troops in the battle of Vinegar Hill; and, after gaining a victory over the English at Castlebar, the French invaders surrendered to Lord Cornwallis, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

The invasion of England was not attempted; but an expedition was fitted out for the conquest of Egypt, a province of the Ottoman Empire, notwithstanding that a state of peace existed between France and Turkey. The command of this expedition was given to Bonaparte, who intended to strike at the British possessions in India after effecting the conquest of Egypt. Among the generals who served under Bonaparte in this expedition were many who afterward became famous—Berthier, Kleber, Murat, Junot, Desaix, Davoust, Lannes and others. Bonaparte's expedition, consisting of forty thousand land troops and ten thousand seamen, sailed from Toulon for Egypt on the 19th of May, 1798. A number of scientific men and artists accompanied the expedition.

Before the sailing of the expedition Bonaparte had been in secret correspondence with the Knights of St. John, who had then held possession of the island of Malta for almost three centuries. The Knights of St. John had outlived the valiant spirit of their ancestors. Their Grand Master, an unworthy heir and successor of La Valette, agreed to surrender the island to Bonaparte for a specified consideration. After sailing from Toulon, Bonaparte's expedition at once proceeded to Malta, and took possession of the island by a formal convention, June 10, 1798, after a mere pretense of resistance on the part of the Knights of St. John. Bonaparte left a garrison of three thousand of his troops at La Valetta, and then his expedition proceeded on its way to Egypt.

Eluding the British fleet under Admiral Horatio Nelson, Bonaparte's expedition landed before Alexandria, in Egypt, July 1, 1798. That city was carried by storm the next day and given up to plunder.

On the 6th of July, Bonaparte left Alexandria, and with thirty thousand of his troops he advanced toward Cairo, greatly annoyed on the way by the Mameluke horsemen. On the 21st (July, 1798) he arrived before the intrenched camp of thirty thousand Mamelukes under Mourad Bey, near the famous Pyramids. Eight thousand Mameluke horsemen advanced to attack the French troops, when Bonaparte exclaimed:

"Soldiers, from yonder Pyramids forty centuries look down upon you!" Then the conflict commenced. The French, who were formed into squares, easily repulsed the impetuous assaults of the Mamelukes, who rode up to the bayonets of their enemies, and threw their pistols at the heads of the French grenadiers. When the Mameluke cavalry were driven back, the French took by storm the camp of their enemy, with all their baggage and cannon; and the battle of the Pyramids ended in a complete victory for Bonaparte, who had lost less than two hundred men in the engagement. Hundreds of the enemy perished in the Nile. Mourad Bey and a small remnant of his Mamelukes fled into Upper Egypt. Cairo surrendered the next day, and the conquest of Lower Egypt was accomplished.

In the meantime a powerful English fleet under Admiral Nelson had been cruising in the Mediterranean sea in search of the French fleet. On the 1st of August (1798) Nelson discovered the French fleet under Admiral Brueyes anchored in the bay of Aboukir. At about sunset Nelson attacked the French ships. A fierce battle ensued, which continued until dawn the next morning. The thunders of the explosion of the French flag-ship L'Orient, of one hundred and twenty guns, which occurred about midnight, shook every vessel in both fleets; and for a moment there was a pause in the deadly conflict. The French admiral had been killed by a cannon-ball. The battle of the Nile, as this engagement is called, was one of the most terrific naval engagements on record; and it resulted in a complete victory for the English. Only a few of the French vessels escaped, the rest all being destroyed or taken by the English. By this disaster Bonaparte and his army were cut off from all resources from France. Said he: "To France the fates have decreed the empire of the land; to England that of the sea."

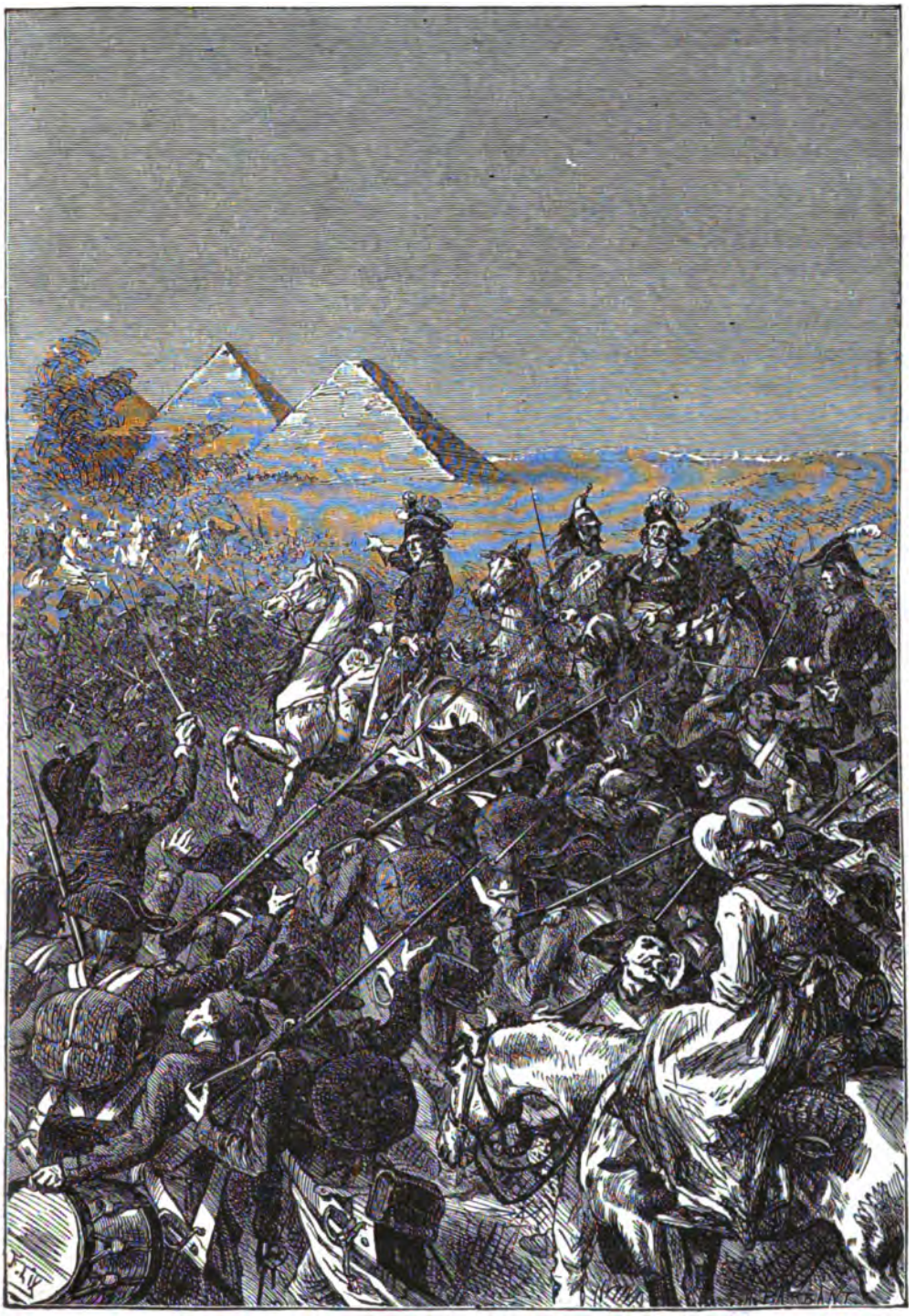
After taking possession of Cairo, Bonaparte established a new government there with a police and a system of taxation based upon the European model, and ordered the curiosities of that renowned ancient land to be examined and its monuments and antiquities to be collected and described by the artists and savants who had accompanied his expedition. While the learned men pursued their researches among the palaces and tombs of the Pharaohs, Bonaparte contented his army by introducing into Cairo all the luxuries and amusements of Paris; and his soldiers found their diversion in French newspapers printed in the camp, as well as in cafés, lyceums and gaming-tables.

While constantly establishing himself more firmly in Egypt, Bonaparte sought to conciliate the Turks, Arabs and Mamelukes in that country by professing a belief in the Mohammedan religion. He and his troops treated the religious customs of the Moslems with every possible forbearance, and showed every outward respect to their dervishes, mosques, ceremonies and customs; but religious fanaticism was nevertheless rampant among the Mussulman population of Egypt, thus rendering Christian rule detestable.

The Moslem hatred of the French was increased when Bonaparte levied taxes and imposts; and Sultan Selim III. of Turkey, who was not deceived by Bonaparte's false shows of friendship and devotion, called upon the Mohammedans of Egypt to fight the Christian invaders. A formidable insurrection in Cairo against the French, October 21, 1798, was suppressed with great difficulty by the European tactics, after six thousand Mohammedans had lost their lives.

After the Revolution of the 18th Fructidor the Directory was obliged to struggle against the general discontent in France, as well as against the disordered condition of the finances and the intrigues of the republicans, who were as hostile to the government as the royalists. The extreme republicans would have overthrown the Directory by a counter-revolution had not the Directors by a stretch of power annulled the elections of 1798. But the Directory was fast losing the support of public opinion by its efforts to oppose violence with violence.

The French Republic, by her victories



BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS.

over her enemies, had established six sister republics. These were the Batavian, Helvetic, Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman and Parthenopeian Republics—all established with forms of government similar to that of France. The aggressive conduct of the French in Switzerland, Rome and Naples alarmed the other powers of Europe.

The relations between France and Austria were strained because the house of Bernadotte, the French ambassador at Vienna, had been broken open, and the tricolor torn down and burned, during a popular festival, without the Austrian government having rendered satisfaction. The Emperor Paul of Russia, the successor of Catharine the Great, entertained the most intense hatred against the French Republic; and, as Grand Master of the Knights of St. John, which he had caused himself to be appointed, he saw a cause for war in the French occupation of the island of Malta. Sultan Selim III. of Turkey was not deceived by Bonaparte's assurances of friendly intentions, and was naturally incensed at the unprincipled occupation of his tributary province of Egypt by Bonaparte. The Sultan accordingly sent magnificent presents to Admiral Nelson, and hastened to make an alliance with Russia, hitherto Turkey's bitterest enemy, against France, hitherto Turkey's best ally.

Mr. Pitt feared danger to England's foreign possessions from Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt; and the influence of British gold, along with the general alarm created throughout Europe by the recent French aggressions in Italy, Switzerland and Egypt, induced Austria, Russia, Turkey and Naples to unite with England in a Second Coalition against the French Republic, in the fall of 1798.

King Ferdinand IV. of Naples and Sicily did not wait for the signing of the treaties of alliance between the powers forming the Second Coalition before he began hostilities in the fall of 1798. This hard-hearted and cowardly king devoted himself wholly to hunting and fishing, leaving the affairs of state to his impetuous wife Caroline, a daughter of the great Empress Maria Theresa and a sister of Queen Marie Antoinette. Queen Caroline herself was entirely under the influence of the notorious courtesan, Lady Hamilton, the wife of the British ambassador at Naples.

Animated by the most inveterate hatred toward the French Revolution and the regicide republicans of France, and informed that the Second Coalition of European powers was in the process of formation, Queen Caroline persuaded her husband to send a Neapolitan army of forty thousand men under the Austrian General Mack against the new Roman Republic. The Neapolitan army marched into the Roman territories in three columns, the central one under General Mack marching directly upon Rome, November, 1798.

The French army in Rome evacuated the city, leaving a garrison in the Castle of St. Angelo; and the King of Naples and Sicily was welcomed with acclamations. But General Mack was defeated with heavy loss in several battles in the course of a few days by the French under General Championnet, who retook Rome and pursued King Ferdinand IV. into his own kingdom of Naples. The Neapolitan king and his court fled from their capital in dismay, embarking with the English fleet under Admiral Nelson for Palermo, in Sicily, ordering their own fleet to be set on fire, and thus abandoning their continental dominions to the triumphant French, December, 1798.

The populace of the city of Naples, excited by the monks and the clergy, now arose against the advancing French troops under General Championnet; while troops of *lazzaroni*, or ragamuffins, joined with peasants and galley-slaves, took possession of Naples, and spread such alarm that King Ferdinand's viceroy also fled into Sicily, while General Mack sought protection among the French.

The French won the lazzaroni and peasants over to their side by a miracle. The blood of St. Januarius, which is still preserved in a vial as the most precious pos-

session of the Neapolitans, had failed to liquefy when the king fled from the city; but when a prince who favored the French threatened to kill the archbishop in case of further delay the miracle was duly performed in favor of General Championnet. The Neapolitan people were thus satisfied, and all resistance to the French ceased, January, 1799.

General Championnet then marched over blood and corpses into the stubbornly defended town, abolished the monarchy in Naples, and converted that kingdom into the *Parthenopeian Republic*, which was bound by an alliance with the French interest, January, 1799. All the more respectable and educated Neapolitans who were inspired with any feeling of patriotism were delighted to escape from years of kingly and priestly tyranny, and hailed the new republican government with enthusiasm.

In March, 1799, France declared war against Austria and Tuscany; and the Coalition commenced hostilities against the French simultaneously in Germany, Italy, Switzerland and the Netherlands. The French army under Massena was first in the field in Germany and won several successes; but the French army of the Danube under Jourdan was defeated by the Austrians under the Archduke Charles at Ostrach and Stockach, in March, 1799, and driven across the Rhine into France. The French armies in Italy had been ordered to coöperate with those in Germany by advancing through the Engadine, but their dearly-bought captures of Martinsbrück and Münsterthal were rendered useless by Jourdan's retreat.

The Congress of Rastadt was abruptly terminated by the recall of the German imperial envoy and by the announcement that the Emperor Francis II. annulled all previous proceedings. The French plenipotentiaries at the Congress of Rastadt—Roberjot, Bonnier and Jean Debry—who had rendered themselves universally odious by their pride and insolence, started to return to France; but as soon as they had left Rastadt, on the evening of April 28, 1799, they were attacked by Szekler hussars, in defiance of all the rights of nations, robbed of their papers, and handled so roughly that Roberjot and Bonnier died immediately, and Jean Debry, who was severely wounded, only saved his life by crawling into a ditch. This barbarous deed and outrage upon the laws of civilized nations, for which the German imperial court was only too clearly responsible, excited universal disgust; and the Directory took advantage of it to excite the French people to vengeance, and thus raised a new army of two hundred thousand men.

In the meantime the French army in Italy under General Gauthier had overrun Tuscany, the Grand Duke of which had retired to Venice. The main French army in Italy under Scherer was repulsed after several days obstinate and constant conflicts at Verona, and was still more severely defeated at Magnano. In less than two weeks Scherer lost half his army, and was succeeded in his command by Moreau.

Field Marshal Suwarrow, the renowned Russian commander, now assumed the command of the allied Austrian and Russian forces in Italy. Suwarrow defeated Moreau at Cassano and entered Milan. Moreau's army was only saved from being overwhelmed by superior numbers by the interference of the Aulic Council of the German Empire at Vienna, with its usual dignified dullness. Suwarrow was ordered to besiege Mantua, Peschiera and other towns which were considered essential to the preservation of what he had already won; and Moreau skillfully effected his retreat to Coni, where he strongly posted himself in communication with Genoa and with France.

Macdonald with another French army now marched from Naples, and was joined by Gauthier's army at Florence; and had these united forces at once joined with Moreau's army the French might have been as strong in Northern Italy as the allies. But as Macdonald wished to make an independent display of his military ability he marched against Suwarrow, by whom he was most disastrously defeated in a three days' battle near the Trebia, the stream

which was so famous for one of Hannibal's great victories.

The result of Macdonald's crushing defeat was the loss of all of Bonaparte's conquests in Northern Italy. The victorious Austrians and Russians occupied Turin, Pignerol, Susa and other strong posts in Piedmont; and Suwarrow's Cossacks even crossed the Alps and invaded France by marching into Dauphiny. The young General Joubert, who had been appointed to supersede Moreau, was defeated and killed in the three days' bloody battle of Novi with the allied army under Suwarrow, August 15–17, 1799. The loss of Tortona to the French by another disaster completed the conquest of the Cisalpine Republic.

The French disasters in Northern Italy were followed by the overthrow of the Roman and Parthenopeian Republics. No sooner had the French evacuated Naples than Cardinal Ruffo, at the head of the enraged lazzaroni and bands of Calabrian peasants, took the city by storm, June 13, 1799; whereupon King Ferdinand IV. and his court returned from Sicily and resumed their authority in Naples.

The republicans of Naples now suffered a frightful punishment. With the support of the British fleet under Admiral Nelson, who, seduced by the charms of Lady Hamilton, suffered himself to be made the instrument of an ignominious vengeance, a mob, with the sanction of the restored monarchical government, perpetrated atrocities which eclipsed the horrors of the French Reign of Terror. The assassinations and pillaging of the lazzaroni were followed by the work of the judge, the executioner and the jailor. Every partisan, adherent or supporter of republican institutions suffered persecution. More than four thousand of the most respectable and refined men and women perished on the scaffold or in frightful dungeons. The gray-haired prince, Caraccioli, the former confidant of King Ferdinand IV. and the friend of Admiral Nelson, was hanged at the yard-arm; and his body was loaded with weights and cast into the sea.

In the meantime the French had conveyed the venerable captive Pope Pius VI. from the convent of Siena to the fortress of Briançon, in the high region of the Alps, a region of perpetual frost, to which French soldiers were sent for punishment. But this unwarranted severity was soon discontinued, and the captive Pope died in the milder climate of Valence, August, 1799. A combined force of Russians, Turks and Neapolitans then advanced on Rome, which the French surrendered September 27, 1799; and the new Pope, Pius VII., recovered possession of the Vatican and resumed the temporal power of the Papacy.

In June, 1799, a Russian army under General Korsakoff arrived in Switzerland, and Suwarrow crossed the Alps from Italy to his assistance. Before Suwarrow's arrival, the French under Massena had attacked and routed Korsakoff, while another French army under Soult defeated the Austrians under Hotze. The vanquished Russians fled for refuge to Zurich, where the French under Massena perpetrated a terrible massacre, September 25 and 26, 1799. Among the victims was the Swiss philosopher Lavater, who was shot and mortally wounded by a French officer who had been his guest a short time before.

In the meantime Field Marshal Suwarrow was advancing into Switzerland from Italy by way of the St. Gothard, amid incredible dangers and difficulties, when he found himself surrounded by the French and for the first time heard of Korsakoff's disastrous defeat. After severe conflicts on the St. Gothard and at the Devil's Bridge against the French and the natural difficulties, Suwarrow was defeated in his efforts to cut through Massena's lines, and was compelled to retreat with the remains of his shattered army across the frozen heights of the Grisons, whence he returned with the remnants of the two Russian armies to his own country, where he soon afterward died, May, 1800.

The attempt of the English to drive the French from Holland, and to restore to the the Stadtholder his authority, resulted in a

disastrous failure. The incompetent English general, the Duke of York, having been defeated by the French under General Brune at Berghen, concluded with the French a disgraceful convention, at Alkmaar, October 18, 1799, by which he was allowed to retire to England with his army, leaving the Russians alone to oppose the French. The selfish conduct of the English and the Austrians so exasperated the Emperor Paul of Russia that he withdrew from the Coalition, made peace with France, and became the bitter enemy of Great Britain.

Although cut off from his resources by the loss of his fleet, Bonaparte still resolved to pursue his conquests in the East. Upper Egypt was conquered by a French division under General Desaix, who marched beyond the ruins of Thebes. Leaving sixteen thousand men to hold that country in subjugation, Bonaparte, with fourteen thousand men, in February, 1799, proceeded to Syria, where the Turks were assembling a large army to oppose him. On the 6th of March, Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, was taken by Napoleon, after a furious assault; and four thousand of its defenders were put to death after they had surrendered. This cruel act is an inerasable stain upon the character of the youthful conqueror of Italy and Egypt.

On the 16th of March (1799) Bonaparte appeared before Acre, which was garrisoned by a small Turkish force under the Pasha of Syria, who was aided in the defense of the city by an English squadron under Sir Sidney Smith. After a siege of two months, during which seventeen desperate attempts to take the town by storm were defeated, Bonaparte abandoned the siege, and left the town in the possession of its defenders.

In the meantime, while the siege of Acre was in progress, the Turks were assembling immense hosts for the purpose of overwhelming the French. While General Kleber, with a small French force, was on his march to attack the enemy's camp on the Jordan he was met by thirty thousand Turks at Mount Tabor. Kleber, who had formed his little band into squares, successfully held out against the overwhelming numbers of the enemy for six hours; and when Bonaparte appeared with his troops for the relief of his subordinate the Turks fled in dismay and dispersed, leaving their camp and all their baggage and stores in the hands of the victorious French. Another Turkish force was defeated and dispersed at Nazareth by a French force under Junot.

In the meantime the French had induced Tippoo Saib, Sultan of Mysore, to make his last attempt to expel the British from India; but the warlike Sultan's defeat and death in defense of his capital, Seringapatam, which was then carried by storm by the English, May 4, 1799, only resulted in the annexation of Mysore to British India, thus destroying the hopes of the French for a blow against British power in the far East.

Bonaparte reached Egypt, on his return from Syria, on the 1st of June, 1799. On the 11th of July a Turkish army of eighteen thousand men landed at Aboukir bay, whither it had been conveyed by the English squadron commanded by Sir Sidney Smith. Bonaparte, on hearing of this, left Cairo; and on the 25th of July he attacked and completely destroyed the Turkish army, which had already established a strongly-fortified camp at Aboukir. The greater portion of the Turkish troops were killed, wounded, drowned in the bay of Aboukir, or made prisoners.

Shortly after his brilliant victory at Aboukir, Bonaparte received intelligence, through some newspapers, of the disasters to the French arms in Italy; and he resolved upon immediately setting out on his return to France. Leaving his army in Egypt under the command of Kleber, he secretly embarked for France. After a long voyage, in which he was in constant danger of being captured by British cruisers, Bonaparte arrived at Frejus, on the Southern coast of France, on the 9th of October; and on the 18th he reached Paris, where he met with a most enthusiastic reception.

No sooner had Bonaparte arrived in Paris

than he received proposals from the moderate party headed by the Director Sieyès, and from the extreme republicans led by the Director Barras, for the overthrow of the Directory and the legislative Councils, which had fallen into contempt on account of the French disasters in Germany and Italy, and because of their weakness at home. Bonaparte decided on entering into a scheme with Sieyès and the moderate party, as they would be less likely to interfere with his measures when his personal government should be established. With this design he won all the French generals except Bernadotte to his plans, and also gained the support of the garrison of Paris.

On the 18th Brumaire, November 9, 1799, Regnier, one of the conspirators, induced the Council of Ancients to assign the command of the National Guard and of all the troops in Paris to Bonaparte, and to pass a decree for the transfer of the sittings of the two legislative Councils to St. Cloud, where their deliberations might be more free than in Paris. Bonaparte, as commander of the division of Paris and head of the military power, was charged with the execution of this decree. The Directors Sieyès and Roger-Ducos proceeded from the Luxembourg Palace to the legislative Councils and the military camp at the Tuileries, and tendered their resignations. The other three Directors endeavored to use their authority and to secure the protection of their guard, but the guard refused to obey them. Barras then sent in his resignation as Director, and started for his estate of Grosbosis. Thus the Directory was dissolved on the 18th Brumaire, and only the legislative Councils remained.

On the 19th Brumaire, November 10, 1799, the legislative Councils proceeded to St. Cloud, accompanied by a military force. As soon as the Council of Five Hundred had assembled in session one of the conspirators offered a motion which gave rise to a violent tumult, which ended in every member taking the oath of allegiance to the republican constitution. Should the Council of Ancients do the same, Bonaparte would be deserted and defeated. The crisis had therefore arrived. He accordingly hastened to the Council of Ancients; and when he was summoned to take the oath to the constitution he declared that it no longer existed, that it was the watchword of all factions and had been violated by all, and that, as it was no longer respected, it must be replaced by another compact and other guarantees. The Council of Ancients approved his address.

Bonaparte next proceeded to the Council of Five Hundred to appease that stormy assembly and to obtain its consent to his plans. But his presence, and the sight of the grenadiers whom he left at the door with fixed bayonets, impressed the members with the fear of military violence; and they reproached and threatened him, and all cried: "Outlaw him! Down with the Dictator!" The great military leader who had stood fearless before the fire of foreign foes was disconcerted for the moment by the menaces of a deliberative assembly. He turned pale, became embarrassed, withdrew from the hall, and was led away by the grenadiers who had acted as his escort. The tumult continued to rage in the Council of Five Hundred, of which Lucien Bonaparte, Napoleon's brother, was president. He attempted to defend Napoleon; but the other members loudly demanded the outlawry of the military leader; and Lucien Bonaparte retired from the chair, cast off the insignia of his office, and was escorted from the chamber by a guard sent for that purpose by Napoleon.

Sieyès, who was better able to conduct a revolution than Napoleon, advised a resort to military force. Napoleon and his brother, Lucien Bonaparte, harangued the troops, the one as the conqueror of Italy and Egypt, and the other as president of the Council of Five Hundred. Napoleon asked: "Soldiers, can I depend on you?" The soldiers all responded: "Yes, yes." Napoleon instantly ordered General Joachim Murat to expel the Council of Five Hundred from the chamber. Murat accordingly led a troop of grenadiers into the hall, and ex-

claimed: "In the name of General Bonaparte, the legislative body is dissolved. Let all good citizens retire. Grenadiers, advance!" The shouts of indignation which arose in reply to Murat's pithy proclamation were drowned in the rolling of drums. The grenadiers advanced with fixed bayonets along the whole length of the hall, and the members fled out of the doors and windows with shouts of "Vive la Republique!" That Republic thereafter existed only in name a few years longer. Thus the Constitution of the Year III. was overthrown by the military usurpation known as the *Revolution of the Eighteenth Brumaire.* Napoleon Bonaparte now took the government of France into his own strong hands; and France, under the name of a Republic, again became an autocracy, under the *Constitution of the Year VIII.*

SECTION XII.—PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION.

THE eighteenth century was a period of remarkable changes—a time when old ideas and institutions were swept away, and when democratic ideas came to the front. These ideas were first promulgated in France, where a number of distinguished philosophical writers arose about the middle of the eighteenth century to question all existing beliefs and things. These writers were Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu and the *Encyclopedists.* These writers attacked Church and State with keen and unanswerable arguments, and gave vent to a widely-felt desire for the "inalienable rights of man." These ideas first found practical expression in the efforts of princes and ministers at reform in Church and State, and afterward in the establishment of the democratic republic of the United States of America, whose people, mostly of the liberty-loving Anglo-Saxon race, by experience were the best prepared for the adoption and practical application of the principles of self-government. The influence of the French philosophers and writers is seen in the American Declaration of Independence, in which are embodied many of the ideas promulgated in Rousseau's *Contrat Social,* "Social Contract," in which the rights of man are advocated with great force. While France in her ideas influenced America, America, as a practical illustration of the sort of government advocated by Rousseau, in turn influenced France, whose armies and fleets had aided to establish the young American Republic. The result was the French Revolution—that gigantic political maelstrom which swept away in one tremendous torrent the remains of mediæval feudalism and the doctrine of the "divine right of kings." The influence of the French Revolution was felt in every European nation, effecting great political and social changes, and tending to elevate the oppressed masses. The literature of the eighteenth century was the literature of wit, and many old customs and institutions were laughed out of existence. The general elevation of the European masses was also promoted by numerous mechanical inventions and scientific discoveries.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century wonderful progress was made in science; and it was at that time that chemistry began to take rank as a science, in consequence of the multitude of discoveries in that field. The following are the leading scientists and their discoveries.

BOERHAAVE (1668–1738) was a great physician of Holland. HALLER (1708–1777)—a distinguished Swiss physician—was called the "Father of Physiology." WILLIAM and JOHN HUNTER (1718–1783 and 1728–1793)—brothers and natives of Scotland—were distinguished anatomists and surgeons. MESMER (1734–1815)—a physician of Vienna—discovered animal

magnetism, or *mesmerism*, in 1776. EDWARD JENNER (1749–1822)—an English physician—made the first experiment in vaccination in 1796.

BUFFON (1701–1788)—a great French naturalist—wrote *Histoire Naturelle*. LINNÆUS (1707–1778)—the great Swedish botanist—by his simple and systematic classification of botanical discoveries, became the founder of the science of botany. WERNER (1750–1817)—a German—founded the sciences of geology and mineralogy.

JOSEPH PRIESTLEY (1733–1804)—a great English chemist and writer, and a Unitarian divine—discovered oxygen gas and more new substances than any other chemist. His house and library were destroyed by a mob because of his sympathy with the French Revolution; and he spent the last ten years of his life in America, and died at Northumberland, Pennsylvania. LAVOISIER (1743–1794)—a distinguished French chemist—arranged the science of chemistry by systematizing the various discoveries. He was guillotined during the French Revolution.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN (1706–1790)—a great American statesman and natural philosopher—made investigations which prepared the way for the science of electricity. He was born in Boston, and came to Philadelphia in 1726, where he established a newspaper in 1728. His prudence, energy and talents soon made him a leading man in Philadelphia. In 1744 he proposed a plan of association for the defense of Pennsylvania. At the Colonial Congress at Albany in 1754 he proposed a plan for the union of the Anglo-American colonies. In the meantime he had commenced his electrical experiments, making several discoveries, chief of which was the identity of electricity and lightning; and he at once applied it to the erection of iron conductors for the protection of buildings from lightning, thus inventing lightning-rods. In 1757 he was sent to England as agent for Pennsylvania, and in 1765 he was examined before the House of Commons concerning the Stamp Act. In 1775 he returned home, and was elected a delegate from Pennsylvania in the Second Continental Congress; having been in the meantime deprived of his office of Postmaster-General of the Anglo-American colonies by Lord North's Ministry. He was a member of the Committee to draft the Declaration of Independence, and was a signer of that immortal document. In 1778 he was sent as American commissioner to France, where he signed the treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, between France and the United States, which led to war between France and England. In 1783 he was one of the American commissioners who signed the definitive treaty of peace with Great Britain at Paris; and in 1785 he returned home, and was chosen President of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania. His last public acts were performed in the capacity of a delegate from Pennsylvania in the National Convention which framed the Constitution of the United States, in 1787.

GALVANI (1737–1798) and VOLTA (1745–1827)—two Italian philosophers—discovered what are known as *galvanic* and *voltaic* electricity. JOSEPH BLACK (1728–1799)—a Scotch chemist—discovered carbonic acid gas. HENRY CAVENDISH (1731–1810)—an English chemist—discovered the constituent parts of air and water. JOHN DALTON (1766–1844)—an English chemist and physicist—discovered the atomic theory.

EULER (1707–1783)—a celebrated Swiss mathematician—flourished at Berlin and St. Petersburg, and died in the latter city. SIR WILLIAM HERSCHEL (1738–1822)—a German by birth, but who spent most of his life in England, where he flourished as a distinguished astronomer—discovered the planet Uranus in 1781, and resolved the Milky-Way into distinct and separate parts. His sister, Caroline Herschel, and his son, Sir John Herschel, were great astronomers. LAPLACE (1749–1827)—the great French mathematician and astronomer—in his great work, *Mécanique Céleste*, treated of mathematical astronomy. LEGENDRE (1752–1833)—also a great French mathematician—wrote *Elements de Geometrie*.

A number of great inventions contributed to the welfare of the masses, most of which were made in England. Navigable canals began to be made, and machinery was applied to the spinning and weaving of cotton. JAMES BRINDLEY (1716–1772)—an Englishman—was the founder of canal navigation. JAMES HARGREAVES (1730–1778)—an Englishman—invented the carding-machine and the spinning-jenny in 1765. SIR RICHARD ARKWRIGHT (1732–1792)—an Englishman—invented the cotton spinning-frame in 1768. CROMPTON (1753–1827)—an Englishman—invented the mule-jenny for the spinning of yarn, in 1775. JACQUARD (1752–1834)—a native of France—invented the loom for figured weaving. JOSIAH WEDGWOOD (1731–1795)—an Englishman—invented "Queen's ware," and thus improved the porcelain manufacture. JAMES WATT (1736–1819)—a Scotchman—improved the steam-engine, for which he obtained a patent in 1769, and which he applied to machinery. ELI WHITNEY (1765–1825)—a native of Massachusetts—invented the cotton-gin in 1793.

There were many minor inventions. The piano-forte was invented at Dresden in 1717. Caoutchouc, or India-rubber, was brought to Europe from South America in 1730. Stereotyping was first practised by WILLIAM GED of Edinburgh. The Chronometer, or clock to keep perfect solar or sidereal time, to determine the longitude of ships at sea, was constructed by JOHN HARRISON, an Englishman, in 1742. The Hydraulic Press was invented by BRAMAH, an Englishman, in 1786. Gas-lights were first used by MURDOCH in Cornwall in 1792. Lithography was invented in Germany in 1796.

WATT DISCOVERING THE POWER OF STEAM.

An improved system of Stenography, or short-hand writing, was introduced. FAHRENHEIT (1690–1736), a Hollander, invented the thermometer bearing his name. JOHN SMEATON (1724–1792)—an English civil engineer—constructed the *Eddystone Lighthouse*.

EMANUEL SWEDENBORG (1688–1772)—a great Swedish scientist, philosopher, and writer on apocalyptic subjects—believed himself to have received divine revelations, and founded the *New Christian Church*.

JONATHAN EDWARDS (1703–1758)—a great American divine and metaphysician—wrote *An Inquiry into the Freedom of the Will.* ADAM SMITH (1723–1790)—a Scotchman and professor in Glasgow University—by his great work, *The Wealth of Nations*, founded the science of political economy. THOMAS REID (1710–1796)—a great Scotch metaphysician and philosopher—wrote *An Inquiry into the Human Mind.* IMMANUEL KANT (1724–1804)—a great German philosopher and metaphysician, partly of Scotch descent, who lived all his life at Königsberg—by his *Critique of Pure Reason* laid the foundation of all subsequent German metaphysics.

The Age of Queen Anne—known as the *Augustan Age of English Literature*—was adorned with the names of Pope, Addison, Steele, Swift, Defoe, Bolingbroke and others.

ALEXANDER POPE (1688–1744)—the greatest English poet during the first half of the eighteenth century—wrote poetry at twelve; and his chief works are his *Essay on Man*, *Rape of the Lock*, and a *Translation of Homer.* JOSEPH ADDISON (1672–1719)—a noted political writer—was the author of the *Spectator* and the *Tatler*, and also wrote *Cato*, *A Letter from Italy*, etc. SIR RICHARD STEELE (1671–1729) aided Addison in writing the *Tatler* and the *Spectator.* JONATHAN SWIFT (1667–1745)—a great Irish-English political writer and satirist—wrote *Gulliver's Travels*, and died insane. DANIEL DEFOE (1661–1731)—an eminent novelist and political writer—was the author of *Robinson Crusoe.* LORD BOLINGBROKE (1678–1751)—the great Tory statesman during Queen Anne's reign—was an eminent political and infidel writer.

Other poets were the Scotch poet, JAMES THOMSON (1700–1748), author of *The Seasons;* the English poet, EDWARD YOUNG (1684–1765), author of *Night Thoughts;* and the fine English lyric poet, WILLIAM COLLINS (1720–1756), who died insane. Among English divines was ISAAC WATTS (1674–1748), the great hymnist.

The age of Dr. Samuel Johnson—comprising the latter half of the eighteenth century—produced the following great English novelists, dramatists, historians and poets:

SAMUEL JOHNSON (1709–1784)—a great English writer—was the author of *The Lives of the Poets*, *Rasselas*, *The Rambler*, and an *English Dictionary.* EDMUND BURKE (1730–1797)—a famous Irish-English orator and statesman—wrote *An Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful*, and *Reflections on the French Revolution.*

DAVID GARRICK (1716–1779) was a celebrated English dramatist and actor. RICHARD BRINSLEY SHERIDAN (1751–1816) was a great Irish-English statesman, Parliamentary orator, lawyer and dramatist.

SAMUEL RICHARDSON (1689–1761)—a celebrated English novelist—wrote *Pamela*, *Clarissa Harlowe* and *Sir Charles Grandison.* HENRY FIELDING (1707–1754)—a great English novelist—wrote *Tom Jones*, *Jonathan Wilde* and *Joseph Andrews.* TOBIAS GEORGE SMOLLETT (1721–1771)—also a noted English novelist—wrote *Roderick Random*, *Peregrine Pickle* and *Humphrey Clinker.* LAURENCE STERNE (1713–1768)—likewise a great English novelist and humorist—wrote *Tristram Shandy* and *The Sentimental Journey.* MISS HANNAH MORE (1745–1833) wrote dramas and novels, one of the best-known of her works being *The Shepherd of Salisbury Plain.*

EDWARD GIBBON (1737–1794)—one of the greatest English historians—wrote *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.* DAVID HUME (1711–1776)—a great Scotch philosopher and historian—wrote a *History of England*, a *Treatise on Human Nature*, and *Essays.* WILLIAM ROBERTSON (1721–1793)—a famous Scotch historian—wrote a *History of Scotland*, *History of America*, and *History of Charles V. of Germany.*

OLIVER GOLDSMITH (1728–1774) was a brilliant Irish-English poet, historian and novelist; whose chief poems were *The Traveler* and *The Deserted Village*, whose great novel was *The Vicar of Wakefield*, and whose other works were *History of England*, *History of Greece*, *History of Rome*, *History of Animated Nature*, etc.

THOMAS GRAY (1716–1771) was the greatest lyric poet of England, and his most celebrated poem was his *Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard.* WILLIAM COWPER (1731–1800)—a famous English poet—wrote *The Task*, *John Gilpin* and other poems, and died insane. ROBERT BURNS (1759–1796)—Scotland's celebrated lyric poet, "the Ayrshire plowman"—wrote *Highland Mary*, *Bonny Doon*, *Auld Lang Syne*, *Tam O'Shanter*, and many other songs and poems.

Other poets of this period were THOMAS CHATTERTON (1752–1770), the boy poet, who committed suicide at the age of seventeen; MARK AKENSIDE (1721–1770), author of *Pleasures of the Imagination;* and JAMES BEATTIE (1736–1803), a noted Scotch poet. Other noted writers were SIR WILLIAM BLACKSTONE (1723–1780), whose great work on the *Laws of England* is the standard text-book of the legal profession in England and America; SIR WILLIAM JONES (1746–1794), the great philologist and orientalist; HORACE WALPOLE (1717–1797), son of the great statesman, Sir Robert Walpole, and author of *Castle of Otranto* and other works; and THOMAS PAINE (1736–1809), the great political and infidel writer, who by his pen aided the cause of liberty in the American and French Revolutions, and who lived in America during the American Revolution and was a member of the French National Convention during the French Revolution, and died in New York. Paine's works were *The Crisis*, *Common Sense*, *Rights of Man*, and *Age of Reason.*

ROLLIN (1661–1741)—a famous French historian—wrote an *Ancient History.* LE SAGE (1668–1747)—a great French novelist—wrote *Gil Blas.*

MONTESQUIEU (1689–1755)—a great French writer, whose chief works were *Considerations sur les causes de la grandeur et de la décadence des Romains; De l' Esprit des Lois*, "On the Spirit of Laws;" and *Lettres Persanes*, "Persian Letters"—was a skeptic in religion. VOLTAIRE (1694–1778)—a great French satirist and infidel writer—wrote the *Henriade*, the only French epic poem, and several historical works, such as the *Age of Louis XIV.* and *History of Charles XII.* ROUSSEAU (1712–1778)—a noted French writer and son of a Geneva watch-maker—was a skeptic in religion and a writer of many operas and plays, and was obliged to leave France for publishing his *Contrat Social*, "Social Contract," in which he advocated the equal rights of all men.

D'ALEMBERT (1717–1783) was a great scientist and principal contributor to the *Encyclopedia.* DIDEROT (1713–1784) was a poet, philosopher and Encyclopedist. CONDORCET (1743–1794) was a metaphysician and Encyclopedist. CONDILLAC (1715–1780) was a metaphysician and writer for the *Encyclopedia.* HELVETIUS (1715–1771) was a philosopher and writer for the *Encyclopedia.*

ROUGET DE L' ISLE (1760–1836)—French poet—wrote the *Marseillaise.* VOLNEY (1757–1820) was a famous French infidel writer. MADAME ROLAND (1754–1793) was an enthusiast for liberty and author of *Memoires.* MADAME DE STAEL (1766–1817)—daughter of Necker—wrote *Corinne.* MADAME DE GENLIS (1746–1830) was a novelist and writer of juvenile works.

MOSHEIM (1694–1755) was a great German church historian. WINCKELMANN (1717–1768) was a great German archæologist.

KLOPSTOCK (1724–1803)—a celebrated German poet—wrote tragedies and lyrics, and his chief work is the *Messiah.* LESSING (1729–1781)—a distinguished German critic and dramatic poet—wrote *Laocoön*, *Emilia Galotti*, *Nathan the Wise*, *Minna von Barnhelm*, and other works. GOETHE (1749–1832)—the greatest of German poets—wrote *Werther*, *Wilhelm Meister*, and *Faust.* SCHILLER (1759–1805)—one of the most illustrious of German poets—wrote dramas, such as *William Tell* and *Wallenstein*, and also a *History of the Thirty Years' War.* HERDER (1744–1803) was a renowned German poet, critic and philosopher. WIELAND (1733–1813) was a famous German poet and novelist.

LAVATER (1741–1801) was a great Swiss philosopher and writer on physiognomy. LOMONOSOFF (1711–1765) was a Russian

poet and grammarian. METASTASIO (1698–1782) was an Italian poet and musical composer, author of operas, oratorios and sonnets. ALFIERI (1749–1803) was the greatest of modern Italian poets.

JOHN SEBASTIAN BACH (1685–1750) was a great German musical composer—the greatest that ever lived. HANDEL (1684–1759)—an illustrious German musical composer—lived most of his life in England; and his leading oratorios were *Israel in Egypt*, *the Messiah*, and *Judas Maccabæus*. HAYDN (1732–1809)—a great German musical composer—wrote many oratorios, chief of which was *The Creation*. MOZART (1756–1792)—also a distinguished German musical composer—wrote *Don Giovanni* and the *Requiem*.

WILLIAM HOGARTH (1697–1764) was a renowned English painter and engraver. SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS (1723–1792)—the first President of the Royal Academy—was a great English portrait and landscape painter. THOMAS GAINSBOROUGH (1727–1788) was a great English landscape painter. JOHN SINGLETON COPLEY (1737–1815) was born in Boston, Massachusetts, but flourished in England as a great historical painter. BENJAMIN WEST (1738–1820)—born in Chester county, Pennsylvania, but who lived most of his life in England—was a great historical painter and also President of the Royal Academy. ANTONIO CANOVA (1757–1822)—a great Italian sculptor—was celebrated for his many beautiful statues.

During the latter part of the eighteenth century several great philanthropists of England distinguished themselves for their unselfish devotion to the cause of humanity. JOHN HOWARD (1726–1790) was famous for his labors in the cause of prison reform. SIR SAMUEL ROMILLY (1757–1818) labored to improve the English penal laws.

WILLIAM WILBERFORCE (1759–1833), as a member of Parliament, devoted his life to the cause of the abolition of the slave-trade in the British colonies, which was effected in 1807, and to the abolition of slavery in the colonies, which was accomplished just before his death in 1833. THOMAS CLARKSON (1760–1846) was a worthy co-laborer with Wilberforce in the cause of abolition, out of Parliament.

JOHN and CHARLES WESLEY (1703–1791 and 1708–1788)—brothers and English clergymen of the Established Church—were distinguished as the founders of *Methodism*, the greatest religious movement since the Reformation. John Wesley was a preacher and writer, who maintained the doctrine that man can by his own free will obtain salvation—a doctrine directly opposed to the creeds of St. Augustine and John Calvin. Charles Wesley was a great preacher and hymnist.

GEORGE WHITEFIELD (1714–1770)—one of the greatest of English pulpit orators and Methodist divines—adhered to the Augustinian and Calvinistic creed of predestination. Methodism—which arose in England about the middle of the eighteenth century—made rapid progress in England and among the English colonists in America, and is now the leading denomination in the United States of America.

Methodism was the last outgrowth of the Puritan movement of the preceding century; and the Wesleys and Whitefield aimed at a reform of the Episcopal State Church of England and of English society in general by freeing both from the corruption then so prevalent, and at substituting for these national evils a purer and more earnest Christian spirit. The Wesleys did not desire a separation from the Established Church, but they were gradually forced to a total separation by the logic of circumstances.

Said Montesquieu on his visit to England: "Every one laughs if one talks of religion." Most of the prominent English statesmen of the time were unbelievers in any form of Christianity, and were distinguished for the immorality and grossness of their lives. Drunkenness and foul talk were considered no discredit to Sir Robert Walpole. A later Prime Minister, the Duke of Grafton, was in the habit of appearing with his mistress at the theater.

Purity and fidelity to the marriage-vow were now sneered out of fashion; and the celebrated Lord Chesterfield, in his letters to his son, instructed him in the art of seduction as part of a polite education. Profanity was general among all classes and among both sexes. Judges swore on the bench. The introduction of gin gave a new impetus to drunkenness, and in the streets of London the gin-shops invited every passer-by to come in and get drunk for a penny and dead drunk for twopence.

The lower classes were ignorant and brutal. The only schools were the grammar schools founded by Edward VI. and Elizabeth. The rural peasantry, fast reduced to pauperism by the abuse of the poor laws, had no moral or religious training. Said Hannah More: "We only saw but one Bible in the parish of Cheddar, and that was used to prop a flower-pot." There was no effective police in the English towns; and in great riots the mobs of London or Birmingham burned houses, broke open prisons, and plundered with perfect impunity. The criminal classes increased in number and boldness, in spite of the laws which made it a capital crime to cut down a cherry-tree, and which hung twenty young thieves in a morning in front of Newgate.

Archdeacon Paley exhorted the young clergy of the diocese of Carlisle "not to get drunk or to frequent ale-houses, * * to avoid profligate habits, not to be seen at drunken feasts or barbarous diversions;" * * and in reading the service, "not to perform it with reluctance or quit it with symptoms of delight." Dr. Knox, headmaster of Tunbridge School, said: "The public have remarked with indignation that some of the most distinguished coxcombs, drunkards, debauchees and gamesters who figure at watering-places are young men of the sacerdotal order." Arthur Young wrote that "the French clergy are more decent than the English. They are not poachers or fox-hunters who spend the morning with the hounds, the evening at the bottle, and reel from drunkenness into the pulpit."

But while the higher and lower classes were steeped in vice and crime, the great middle classes lived on in their old piety unchanged; and it was from that class that the Wesleyan revival burst forth near the end of Walpole's administration—a revival which in a few years was to change the whole temper of English society, which restored the Church to life and activity. Religion carried a fresh spirit of moral zeal to the hearts of the poor, and purified English literature and English manners. It gave rise to a new philanthropy which reformed English prisons and infused clemency and wisdom into the English penal laws, abolished the slave trade, and gave the first impulse to popular education.

John Wesley was born at Epworth, in Leicestershire, June 17, 1703, and was the son of a clergyman of the Established Church. He was educated at Oxford University, and at the age of twenty-three he was ordained a clergymen of the Established Church and elected a Fellow of Lincoln College. His fellowship gave him a small salary, which supported him during a great part of his life. He passed much time in study and prayer, and had few companions.

While John Wesley was for a time acting as his father's curate at Epworth, his brother Charles and several other students formed a religious society to meet together for prayer and moral improvement, thus exciting the ridicule of their fellow-students, who called the new society "Bible Bigots," "Bible Moths," "the Holy Club," "the God Club," and finally "Methodists;" the last of which names adhered to the Wesleys and their religious society. John Wesley joined this club when he returned to Oxford, and Whitefield also became a member of it.

After his father's death, in 1735, John Wesley, on General Oglethorpe's invitation, went on a mission to preach to the Indians of Georgia; but at the close of 1737 he returned to England, just as Whitefield was sailing for America. While in Georgia, Wesley had learned something of the Moravians; and after his return he united with the Moravians of London in forming a religious society, which met in little bands.

When the Methodist group transferred itself from Oxford to London, in 1738, three figures detached themselves from the group which now attracted public attention by the fervor and extravagance of its piety. These three figures were the brothers John and Charles Wesley and George Whitefield. Each of these three men found his special work in carrying religion to the vast masses of population in the towns or around the mines and collieries of Cornwall and the North of England.

Whitefield, a servitor of Pembroke College, was the great preacher of the revival. As the pulpits of the Established Church were closed against the new apostles they were obliged to preach in the fields. Their voices were soon heard in every part of England—among the bleak moors of Northumberland, in the dens of London, in the long galleries where the Cornish miner hears the roar of the billowy deep. Whitefield's preaching was such as had never before been heard in England, silencing all criticism in its intense reality, its earnestness of belief, its deep, tremulous sympathy with the sin and sorrow of mankind.

As a preacher John Wesley was next in power to Whitefield. As a hymn-writer he ranked second to his brother Charles, who came from Christ Church College as the "sweet singer" of the new religious movement. John Wesley also had other admirable qualities—an indefatigable industry, a cool judgment, a command over others, a faculty of organization, a singular combination of patience and moderation with an imperious ambition, which marked him as a ruler of men. He had likewise a learning and a skill in writing possessed by no others of the Methodists. He was older than any of his colleagues, and he outlived them all. His life—from 1703 to 1791—embraces almost the whole of the eighteenth century; and the religious organization which he founded passed through almost every phase of its history before he died at the age of eighty-eight.

John Wesley practiced a monkish asceticism, frequently living only on bread and sleeping on the bare boards. He lived in a world of wonders and divine interpositions. He considered it a miracle if the rain ceased and allowed him to proceed on a journey. He regarded it as a punishment from Heaven if a hailstorm burst upon a town which had been deaf to his preaching. He said that one day when his horse became lame: "I thought, can not God heal either man or beast by any means or without any? Immediately my headache ceased and my horse's lameness in the same instant." He guided his conduct by drawing lots or by watching at what particular texts he opened his Bible.

But, with all his superstition, John Wesley was practical, orderly and conservative; and no man ever headed a new movement who was more anti-revolutionary. In his earlier days the bishops had been obliged to rebuke him for the intolerance and narrowness of his Churchmanship. When Whitefield began his sermons Wesley could not at first approve of "that strange way." He condemned and fought against the admission of laymen as preachers till he found himself left with only laymen to preach. He clung with a passionate fondness to the Church of England to the last, and simply regarded the body which he had founded as only a lay society in communion with that Church. He broke with the Moravians, the earliest friends of his movement, when they imperiled its safe conduct by their contempt of religious forms. He broke with Whitefield when that great preacher plunged into an extravagant Calvinism.

But this same practical temper of mind finally enabled John Wesley to grasp and organize the new movement. He himself became the most diligent of field preachers, and his journal of half a century is mainly a record of fresh journeys and fresh sermons. When he was finally obliged to employ lay preachers he made their work a new and attractive feature of his system. His earlier asceticism only lingered in his dread of social enjoyment and an aversion to the gayer and livelier side of life which marks the resemblance of the Methodist movement

to the Puritan movement of the preceding century. As his superstitious fervor gradually gave way in his later years he discouraged the enthusiatic outbursts of his followers, so characteristic at the opening of the new movement.

Says Green: "It was no common enthusiast who could wring gold from the close-fisted Franklin and admiration from the fastidious Horace Walpole, or who could look down from the top of a green knoll at Kingswood on twenty thousand colliers, grimy from the Bristol coal-pits, and see, as he preached, the tears 'making white channels down their blackened cheeks.'"

The effects of Whitefield's preaching, and that of his fellow-Methodists, were terrible for good and ill. They aroused a passionate enthusiasm in their followers. Women fell down in convulsions. Strong men were stricken suddenly to the ground. The preacher was interrupted by hysteric outbursts of laughter or weeping. All the manifestation of strong spiritual excitement followed in their sermons; and the terrible sense of a conviction of sin, a new dread of hell, a new hope of heaven, assumed forms both grotesque and sublime. Charles Wesley's sweet hymns expressed the fiery conviction of the converts in chaste and beautiful verse; and the wild throes of hysteric enthusiasm gave way to a fondness for hymn-singing, so that a new musical impulse was aroused in the people of England which gradually changed the character of public devotion.

The preaching of Whitefield and his colleagues also aroused a fierce hatred in their opponents, and these preachers' lives were frequently imperiled. They were mobbed, ducked, stoned, and even smothered with filth. The magistrates frequently allowed the mobs to do as they pleased, and in one place the prosecuting attorney of the county headed the mob. All sorts of ridiculous stories were told about John Wesley. He was said to have been imprisoned for selling gin; to be a Quaker, a Catholic, an Anabaptist; to be going to join the Spaniards, and to have hanged himself.

Wesley's powers were directed to building up a great religious society which might give practical and permanent form to the new enthusiasm. The Methodists were grouped in classes, assembled in love-feasts, purified by the expulsion of unworthy members, and supplied with a change of settled clergymen and itinerent preachers; while the entire body was placed under the absolute government of a conference of preachers. But as long as John Wesley lived, the direction of the new religious society remained with him alone. To those who objected to his Church government, he replied: "If by arbitary power you mean a power which I exercise simply without any colleagues therein, this is certainly true, but I see no hurt in it." John Wesley strongly condemned the conduct of the Anglo-American colonists in severing themselves from their mother country, and regarded them as rebellious and undutiful children.

The Methodist body—numbering one hundred thousand at the time of Wesley's death, and now amounting to millions in England and America—bears the impress of John Wesley in more than in its name. Of all Protestant Churches it is the most rigid in its organization and the most despotic in its government.

The Methodist Church itself was only a small outcome of the Methodist religious revival. Its action broke the lethargy of the clergy of the Established Church, and made the fox-hunting parson and the absentee rector impossible. In this age no body of clergy surpasses that of the Established Church in piety, in philanthropic energy, or in popular regard. A new moral enthusiasm took hold of the English nation, thus improving the morals of the upper classes and purifying English literature from the foulness which had infected it since the Stuart Restoration in 1660.

But the noblest results of the Wesleyan movement were its philanthropic effects, which are still felt. The Sunday-schools, established by Robert Raikes of Gloucester in 1781, were the beginnings of popular education. Attempts were made to amelior-

ate the condition of the poor, to alleviate physical suffering, to improve the degraded and the profligate. Hannah More, by her writings and her personal example, drew the sympathy of England to the poverty and crime of the agricultural laborer. The passionate impulse of human sympathy with the wronged and the afflicted led to the erection of hospitals, the endowment of charities, the building of churches, the sending of missionaries to heathen lands. This sentiment supported Burke in his plea for the Hindoo, and sustained Wilberforce and Clarkson in their crusade against the iniquitous slave-trade. It also upheld Sir Samuel Romilly in his efforts to improve the English penal laws, and the noble-hearted John Howard in the cause of prison reform.

Other Protestant sects arose during the eighteenth century; such as the Swedenborgians, or *New Christian Church*, founded by the great Emanuel Swedenborg; the *Dunkards* and *Amish* in Germany, who in many points of faith, such as simplicity of dress and manners, aversion to military service and the use of law, coincide with the Mennonites and Quakers, and many of whom have settled in the United States of America; the *Unitarians*, who deny the divinity of Christ; and the *Universalists*, who reject the doctrine of a future punishment, and who arose in England and America. In France the writings of Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu and the Encyclopedists made skepticism in religion almost universal among the intelligent classes. In Germany at the same time the writings of Kant, Nicolai and others also undermined religious faith, and gave rise to the *Rationalists*, who denied all divine revelation and supernaturalism.

During the last half of the eighteenth century the social condition of the masses exhibited a marked improvement. The new inventions brought within the reach of the poorer classes many more of the comforts and conveniences of life. Public libraries, mechanics' institutes, clubs, coöperative societies and Sunday-schools were now introduced. About the close of the eighteenth century gentlemen cast aside their hanging cuffs and lace ruffles, their cocked hats and wigs, their buckles and swords.

During the eighteenth century British navigators were making explorations and discoveries in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. Commodore Anson circumnavigated the globe between 1740 and 1742. Numerous discoveries were made by British navigators, such as Byron, Wallis, Cook, Vancouver and others. Captain Cook discovered a number of small islands in the Pacific, the most important being the Sandwich, or Hawaian Islands, in 1778, where he was killed in a dispute with the natives in 1779. The Sandwich Islanders have since been largely converted to Christianity by Christian missionaries, and many Americans have settled in those islands, while the native population has been diminishing. Behring's Strait was discovered in 1741 by Captain Behring, a Dane in the Russian naval service.

In the Mohammedan world, about 1760, Abd el Wahab, of Kurdistan, founded the sect of the *Wahabees*, or *Wahabites*, who disclaimed the divine nature of Mohammed, rejected the mediation of saints, and denied the obligation of vows in time of danger. His disciples were highly intolerant, and were continually involved in feuds and wars with the neighboring tribes in the East of Asiatic Turkey and Arabia, but were suppressed in Arabia in 1818 by Mehemet Ali, the powerful Pasha of Egypt.

The English conquest of India and the extension of the British dominion in other parts of the world brought about more frequent communication and a more enlarged intercourse between all parts of the globe, and thus led to a diffusion of European civilization, especially of Anglo-Saxon civilization—the highest type of civilization yet attained by man. Thus, when England had established free institutions on a solid basis in her own home, she was preparing the way for the extension of the same boon to other peoples in remote parts of the earth, and thus elevating and improving the races which she had conquered.

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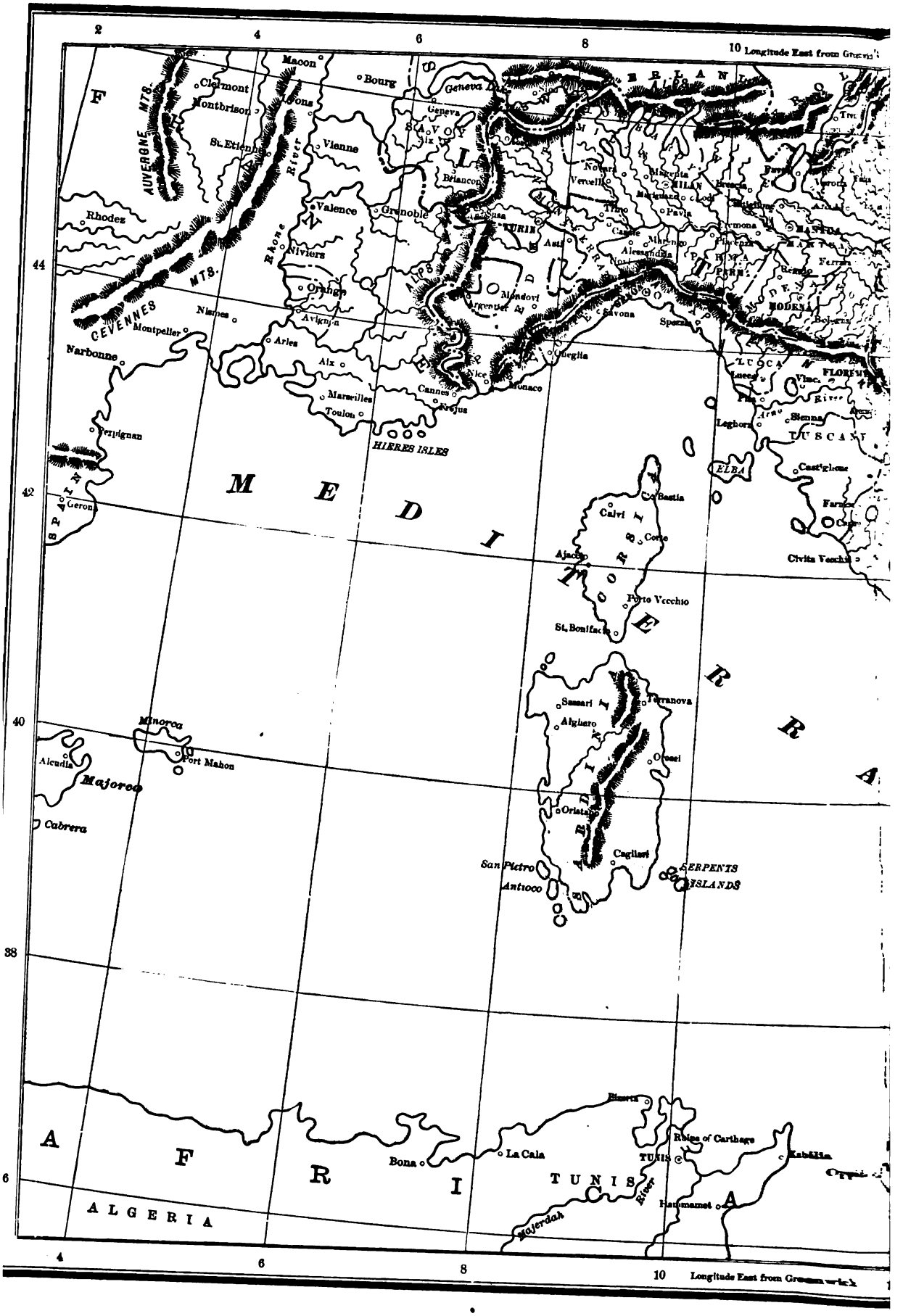
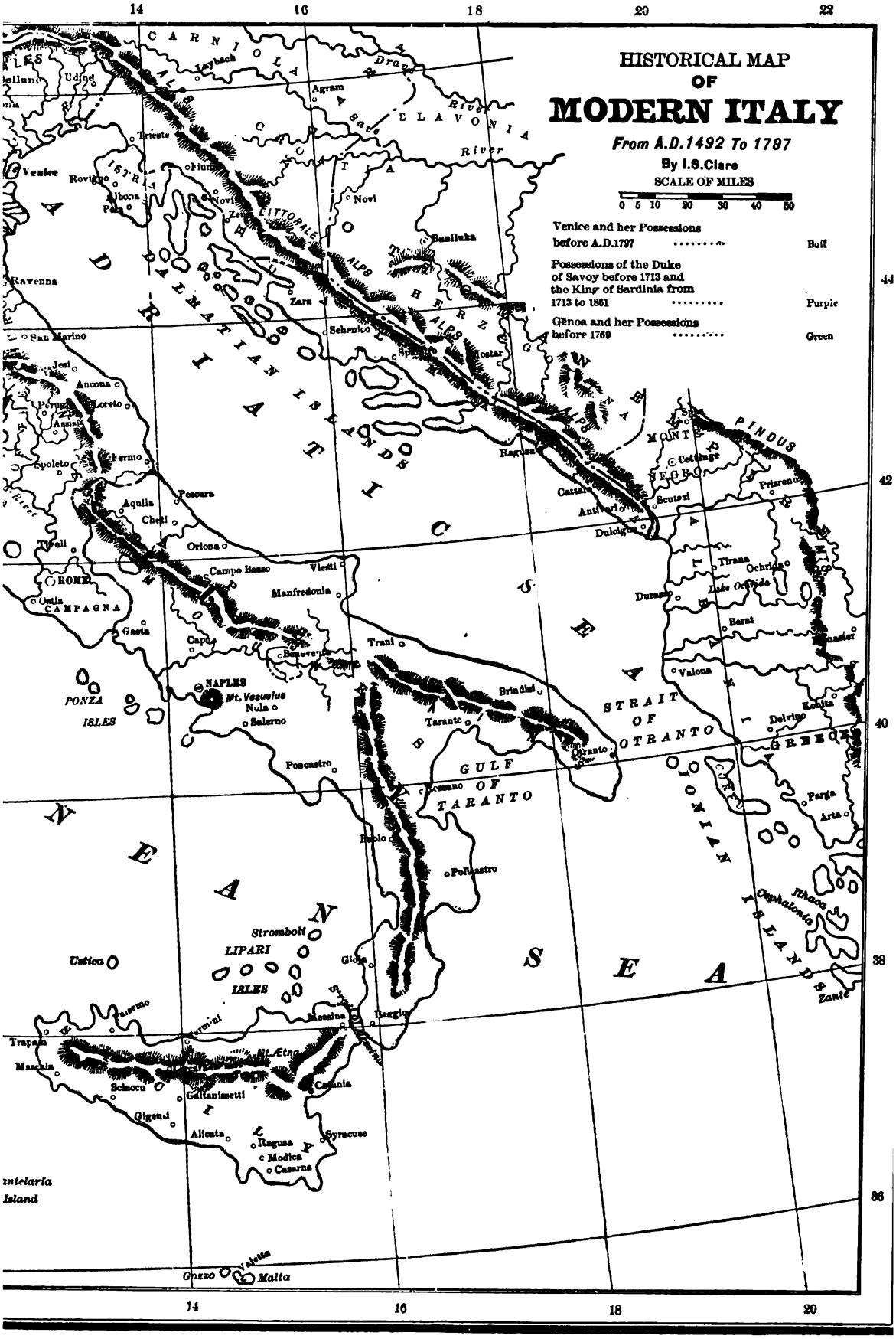


Longitude East from Greenwich
Macon
Bourg
Clermont
Montbrison
Lyons
St. Etienne
Vienne
Geneva
Geneva Lake
SAVOY
Briancon
Rhodez
AUVERGNE MTS.
Rhone River
Valence
Grenoble
Niviers
Orange
Avignon
Nismes
Montpellier
Narbonne
Arles
Aix
Marseilles
Toulon
Cannes
Frejus
Nice
Monaco
Oneglia
Mondovi
Argentier
Asti
TURIN
Susa
Novara
Vercelli
Trino
Castle
Alessandria
Marengo
Pavia
Magenta
MILAN
Lodi
Brescia
Cremona
Piacenza
PARMA
MODENA
Bologna
Ferrara
Reggio
Savona
Spezzia
LUCCA
Lucca
Pisa
Leghorn
Arno River
Sienna
TUSCANY
FLORENCE
Castiglione
ELBA
Farnese
Civita Vecchia
Perpignan
Gerona
SPAIN
HIERES ISLES
MEDITERRANEAN
Bastia
Calvi
Corte
Ajaccio
CORSICA
Porto Vecchio
St. Bonifacio
Sassari
Terranova
Alghero
Orosei
Oristano
Cagliari
SARDINIA
San Pietro
Antioco
SERPENTS ISLANDS
Minorca
Port Mahon
Alcudia
Majorca
Cabrera
Bizerta
Ruins of Carthage
TUNIS
Kabilia
Bona
La Cala
TUNIS
Majerdah River
Hammamet
AFRICA
ALGERIA


HISTORICAL MAP
OF
MODERN ITALY
From A.D.1492 To 1797
By I.S.Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 5 10 20 30 40 50
Venice and her Possessions before A.D.1797 ..... Buff
Possessions of the Duke of Savoy before 1713 and the King of Sardinia from 1713 to 1861 ..... Purple
Genoa and her Possessions before 1769 ..... Green
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CARNIOLA
Laybach
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SLAVONIA
Udine
Trieste
Venice
Rovigno
Albona
Pola
Fiume
Novi
Zeng
Novi
Banilukа
Ravenna
Zara
Sebenico
Spalato
Mostar
San Marino
Jesi
Ancona
Loreto
Perugia
Assisi
Fermo
Spoleto
Pescara
Aquila
Cheti
Orlona
Campo Basso
Viesti
Manfredonia
Tivoli
ROME
Ostia
CAMPAGNA
Gaeta
Capua
Benevento
NAPLES
Mt. Vesuvius
Nola
Salerno
PONZA
ISLES
Trani
Brindisi
Taranto
Otranto
Ponoastro
Rossano
Polo
Policastro
Stromboli
LIPARI
ISLES
Ustica
Gioja
Messina
Reggio
Palermo
Termini
Trapani
Mascala
Sciacca
Galtanissetti
Mt. Ætna
Catania
Gigenti
Alicata
Ragusa
Modica
Casarna
Syracuse
Valetta
Gozzo
Malta
ADRIATIC SEA
DALMATIAN ISLANDS
LITTORALE ALPS
HERZEGOVINA
MONTENEGRO
Cettinge
Ragusa
Cattaro
Antivari
Scutari
Dulcigno
PINDUS
Prisreno
Tirana
Ochrida
Lake Ochrida
Durazzo
Berat
Valona
Delvino
Konita
GREECE
Parga
Arta
Ithaca
Cephalonia
Zante
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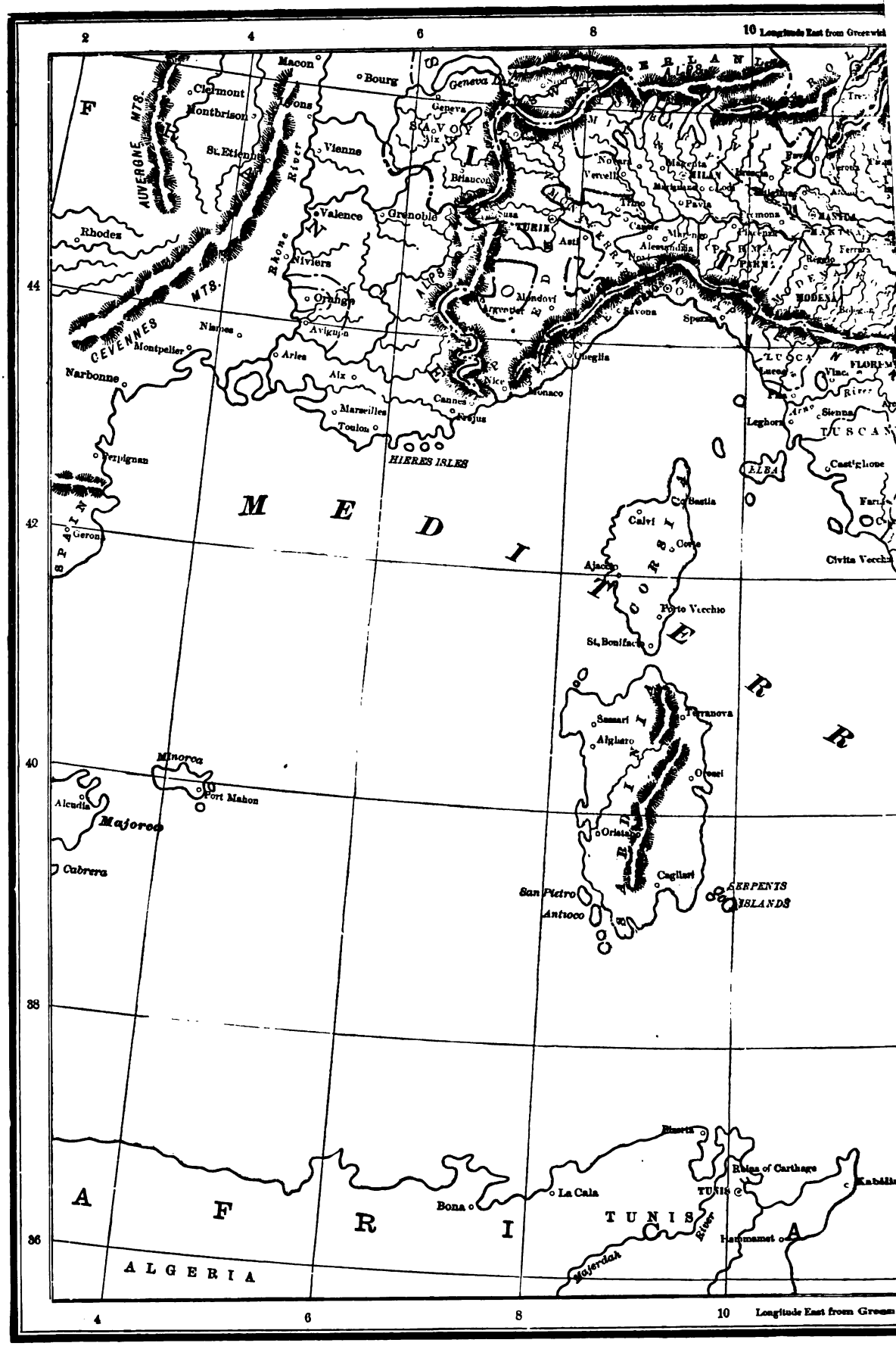
Gozzo
Malta



Longitude East from Greenwich
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Macon
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Lyons
St. Etienne
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Geneva
Briancon
Valence
Grenoble
Rhodes
Niviers
Orange
Avignon
Nismes
Montpelier
Narbonne
Arles
Aix
Marseilles
Toulon
Cannes
Frejus
Nice
Monaco
Oneglia
Savona
Sparta
Alessandria
Pavia
Trino
Vercelli
Novara
Magenta
MILAN
Lodi
Brescia
Cremona
Piacenza
Parma
Modena
Ferrara
Reggio
Bologna
Lucca
Pisa
Leghorn
Sienna
Castiglione
Civita Vecchia
Perpignan
Gerona
Bastia
Calvi
Corte
Ajaccio
Porto Vecchio
St. Bonifacio
Sassari
Terranova
Alghero
Orosei
Oristano
Cagliari
San Pietro
Antioco
Minorca
Port Mahon
Alcudia
Majorca
Cabrera
Bizerta
Ruins of Carthage
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Hammamet
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AUVERGNE MTS.
CEVENNES MTS.
ALPS
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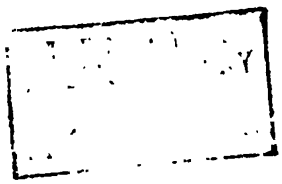
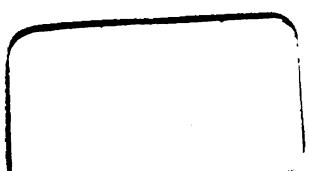
SERPENTS ISLANDS
MEDITERRANEAN
AFRICA
ALGERIA
TUNIS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